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APPENDIX

TO THE

SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS
OF COMMON SCHOOLS. MAY, 1840.

No. 4.

EDUCATION IN OTHER STATES AND COUNTRIES.

CIRCULAR.

Having accepted the appointment of Secretary to the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools for another year, the undersigned takes this occasion to say, that the same measures substantially which have been pursued thus far in this department, will be adopted "to ascertain the condition, increase the interest, and promote the usefulness of common schools."

The Connecticut Common School Journal will be conducted under the following circumstances. The present volume will be published through the months of August and September, so as to embrace entire the Appendix to the Report of the Board, and will be forwarded to the present subscribers without any additional charge. The first number of volume III will be issued in October, and be continued monthly thereafter, should the encouragement be sufficient to warrant it. As the Legislature made no provision for its support, its publication beyond the month of October, will depend on the action of the friends of Common Schools.

The Secretary takes this occasion to commend to the inhabitants of school districts the importance of providing, at the annual meeting of the district, on Tuesday, the 25th of August, for the establishment of common school libraries, by which the pleasures and advantages of knowledge may be brought home to every family through their children at the schools. It is also respectfully suggested, that many of the acknowledged evils of the winterschool may be obviated by continuing the teacher of the summer school, if the same has been found properly qualified, through the winter; and by the formation of a union school for the older and more advanced children of two or more districts.

He would also respectfully request of school visitors to forward to him a copy of the Annual Report, which they are required to submit at the close of their official year, to their several school societies, on the condition of the common schools, with plans for their improvement. These reports, read in public meetings and printed, can give a more powerful local impulse to common schools, than all other causes together.

HENRY BARNARD, 2d.

Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools.

HARTFORD, JULY, 1840.

APPENDIX No. 4.*

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

Accompanying this Report of the Secretary, as originally submitted to the Board, were sundry documents exhibiting the present condition of popular education in the United States and in Europe. Much of this information had been given to the public through the Common School Journal; but it was deemed advisable to append the same to the Report, that the legislature and the people might compare our own system of common schools with those to be found elsewhere.

Before the Report was submitted to the Legislature, the Joint Select Committee, which was raised on so much of the Governor's message as referred to common schools, made a call, by resolution, on the Secretary of the Board, to communicate such official documents, and information as he might be possessed of, relative "to common school education in other states and countries." In compliance with this resolution, copies of the Journal, and the books and documents from which the information in this appendix was taken, were forwarded to the Committee. On the reception of this communication, the Committee submitted the following Report and resolution.

The joint select committee on common schools, to whom was referred a communication of the Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of common schools, covering sundry documents relative to the condition of public instruction in other states and countries, have had the same under consideration, and beg leave to report:

That the documents contain the most encouraging evidence of the increasing interest with which the education of the whole people is now regarded by governments and the people themselves, not only in this country but in Europe; and of the positive advance which has been made, not only in the external organization of school systems but in their internal arrangements—the classification, instruction, and government of the schools themselves. Much of this information, as we learn from the Secretary, who appeared personally before the committee, has been condensed and published in the Connecticut Common School Journal during the past two years. Some additional extracts are now publishing with the documents appended to his report. There is still, however, room to make valuable selections from more recent official documents, which, with what is now published in the Journal, and will soon be published in the appendix to the Report of the Secretary, would constitute a more valuable summary of the condition of common school education in other states and in Europe, than can be found in any one

* The appendix relative to school houses is omitted to make room for a more extended account of the condition of elementary education in Europe. For information on the subject see volume I. p. 14. 36. 67. 105, and volume II. 45. 67. 73. 157. 179.

or number of volumes now published. The committee are unanimously of the opinion, that the immediate and permanent usefulness of our common schools would be advanced by placing this body of information within the reach of school committees, teachers and parents, in every school district in this State. The Secretary of the board has placed the surplus numbers of the Connecticut Common School Journal at the disposal of the committee, without charge to the State—on condition that the same be sent to the clerk of each school district, bound up with the report and accompanying documents of the board of school commissioners, and the additional selections from the documents which have been submitted to the committee.

These volumes, besides containing the information before alluded to, embrace the entire report of Prof. Stowe on elementary education in Europe, which has been printed by the legislatures of Ohio, Pennsylvania, New-York and Massachusetts, a large portion of Cousin's famous report on the school system of Prussia, the history and condition of the common school system of New-York, Ohio, Michigan, Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, valuable original and selected essays on the government and instruction of schools, together with plans for the construction and arrangement of school-houses. This body of information could not be printed and sent to each district at a less expense than two thousand dollars. It can now be had for the expense of binding the same in a plain, substantial manner, which will cost about 12 cents per copy; or, in the gross, about \$180; and the expense of printing two or three additional numbers which will not exceed, for the number of copies wanted to supply each district, \$150.

The committee would willingly recommend some appropriation by the way of compensation for the 1st and 2d volumes of the Journal, as far as they shall be supplied by the Secretary of the board; but as he declines to receive any, the committee can go no farther than recommend the adoption of the accompanying resolution. All of which is respectfully submitted.

E. STEARNS, Chairman.

Resolved, That the Board of Commissioners of Common schools, be authorized and directed to forward to the clerk of each school district, a bound volume of the back numbers of the Connecticut Common School Journal, as far as the same can be furnished, including the last Report, and accompanying documents of the board, and such selections from official reports, as will present a summary of the present condition and means of common school education in other states and in Europe, and that the comptroller of public accounts, be authorized to draw an order on the Treasurer, for a sum not exceeding three hundred and thirty dollars, in favor of the Board, for the purpose aforesaid, to be paid out of any money not otherwise appropriated.

In consequence of this resolution, the plan and contents of this number of the appendix are changed. Reference will be made in the proper place to what has been already published, and the information here given will be such as has not been already circulated in the State.

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COMMON SCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

There is great difficulty in giving the present condition of popular education in this country. In most of the States there is no department of the government entrusted with the supervision of schools, or the duty of collecting and disseminating information respecting them. Besides, there is such an increase of population, and such frequent changes of the laws relating to common schools, that an account of the school system of any state as it existed a few years since, would not be correct at the present time. The information contained in the *Annals of Education*, in the *Quarterly Register*, the *American Almanac*, and in a paper appended to Mr. Crawford's Report on the Penitentiaries of the United States, the best authorities we have been able to consult, is principally based on documents dated prior to 1835, and for all the proportions, on the census of 1830.

In 1830, the number of children from 5 to 15, the usual age of common school attendance, in the states and territories, was 2,941,406. Of this number, 977,391 were in New England and New York, where the attendance on common schools is more general, and for a longer period of the year, than in the rest of the Union. If reliance, however, can be placed on the returns and estimates made in Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Maine, for 1838, about one-third of this number were in private schools, or in no school, common or private. Passing beyond New York, there was a population of 1,840,000 of the school age, and according to Mr. W. C. Woodbridge's estimate, 1,400,000 were destitute of common instruction, in 1832. Since that time, the school systems of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, N. Carolina, Tennessee, Missouri, Ohio and Michigan, have been greatly improved, and the number of children at school increased.

As the results of the census of 1840 will soon be known, and as all the more recent official information respecting the best organized school systems, has been published from time to time in the *Journal*, we shall in this place merely insert a brief account of the school system of Maine, and references to the information contained in the former numbers of the *Journal*.

MAINE.

By a permanent law of Maine, every town is required to expend for the maintenance and support of schools therein, a sum of money not less than *forty cents* for each inhabitant the town contains, the number to be computed according to the next preceding census; so that a town containing two thousand inhabitants of all ages, is required to raise and expend, within its own limits annually, at least eight hundred dollars for public schools. This money is assessed and

collected on the polls and estates of the town, in the same manner as other public taxes are levied, and is paid into the town treasury, but can be appropriated for no other purpose. This law is rigidly enforced; every town failing to comply with its requirements in this particular, being liable to forfeit and pay a sum not less than twice, nor more than four times the amount of such failure or deficiency, to be recovered by indictment, or in an action of debt, to the use of the person who may sue therefor. In this mode, our school fund is annually collected from the pockets of our citizens, and is paid with more cheerfulness than any other tax to which they are liable. For the more convenient and profitable expenditure of the money thus raised, each town is divided into a number of school districts of convenient size having regard to the population and extent of territory in each, so that on the one hand, they shall not be so large in population as to render the school unprofitably numerous, or so extensive in territory as to render it inconvenient for those living in the extreme parts to avail themselves of the advantages; nor on the other, so small, in point of numbers, as to prevent the support of a school for a reasonable portion of a year. These districts are formed by the several towns, at their annual meetings for the transaction of town business; and continue until, from a change in population or other causes, an alteration in their limits becomes necessary. Each district so formed, is by law declared to be a body corporate for certain specific purposes; is empowered to raise money from time to time to build or repair schoolhouses, and to purchase land on which the same may stand. The money so raised, is assessed and collected in the same manner as the town taxes are, and, when collected, is paid over to a committee of the district to be expended. If any districts neglect their duty in erecting or repairing schoolhouses, the town in which such district is situated, has power to grant a sufficient sum to erect or repair such house, to be assessed on the polls and estate within such negligent district. Each town is required to choose, annually, a superintending school committee of not less than three nor more than seven, whose duty it is to examine schoolmasters and mistresses proposing to teach school therein, and also to visit and inspect the schools in their respective towns, and inquire into the regulations and discipline thereof, and the proficiency of the scholars therein; to use their influence and best endeavors, that the youth in the several districts regularly attend the schools, and direct what school books shall be used in the respective schools. At the annual town meeting, there is also chosen an agent for each school district, whose duty it is to hire the schoolmasters or mistresses for their respective districts, and to provide the necessary fuel and utensils for the schools. If any parent, master, or guardian neglects to furnish his scholars with suitable books, they are furnished at the expense of the town, and their cost is added to the tax of the negligent parent, master or guardian, in the next annual assessment.

No person can, by law, be employed as a schoolmaster, unless he be a citizen of the United States, and produce a certificate from the superintending school committee of the town where the school is to be kept, and also from some person of liberal education, literary pursuits, and good moral character, residing within the county, that he is well qualified to instruct youth in reading and writing the English language grammatically, and in arithmetic and other branches of learning usually taught in public schools. The money assessed and collected in each town for the support of schools, is appropriated among the several school districts within such town, according to the number of children therein between the ages of four and twenty-one years. By this mode of apportionment, every child, of however indigent or dissolute parentage, derives, or may derive advantages from public instruction, equal to those enjoyed from the like source by the children of the most wealthy in the state. The proper officers in the several towns are required periodically, to make a return to the office of the Secretary of State, of the number of school districts within their respective towns, the number of children in each of said districts between the ages of four and twenty-one years, the number who usually attend school in each, the amount of money raised and expended for the support of schools, designating what part is raised by taxes, and what from funds, and how such funds have accrued, and the time the school may have been kept annually in each, designating how much by a schoolmaster, and how much by a schoolmistress. In our agricultural towns, the schools are usually kept by a master in the winter, when they are generally fully attended by the lads of all ages, and require a higher order of government than can usually be expected from females. During those months in which the larger male scholars are employed in labor on the farms, the schools are usually attended by girls, and the smaller boys only, and are taught by females. In those towns where they have no fund except what is raised by annual taxation, a master's school is usually kept up three months or more in the winter season, and a school instructed by a female, about the like term in the summer season; and it is, by law, made the duty of the superintending school committee of each town, to visit each school within the town, at least twice during the term for which it is kept; once within three

weeks from the commencement, and once within two weeks from the close thereof.—*Gov. Parish.*

Abstract of School Returns for 1838.

Number of school districts,	-	-	-	-	3,578
Number of persons between 4 and 21,	-	-	-	-	196,367
at schools taught by Master,	-	-	-	-	84,511
taught by Mistress,	-	-	-	-	72,128
Amount required to be raised by tax,	-	-	-	-	159,784
actually raised by tax,	-	-	-	-	180,593
Amount of Bank tax,	-	-	-	-	49,415
Amount actually raised and expended from all sources in 1838,	-	-	-	-	254,416
Average length of schools in weeks and days,	-	-	-	-	16 6
Average wages of teachers per month, Male,	-	-	-	-	\$20 36
Female,	-	-	-	-	\$8 51

VERMONT.

See Volume II. p. 153.

MASSACHUSETTS.

For an account of the school system, and the present condition of the schools of this state, see Volume I. p. 96. 116; Volume II. p. 156. 173. 174. The documents from which the extracts referred to are made, contain therein more light on the actual working of the common school system under the most favorable circumstances, than the school documents of any other state, which are generally confined to mere statistics, and the external organization.

NEW YORK.

For an interesting account of the school system of New York, by Hon. John A. Dix, see Volume I. p. 75. 77; for the provision for the education of teachers, see Volume I. p. 91; for the condition of the schools in 1839, see Volume II. p. 132. 170.

By a supplementary Report of the Superintendent, dated January, 1840, it appears that 6001 districts have supplied themselves with common school libraries, numbering in all over 340,968 volumes.

A most important feature was added to the school law in 1839, authorizing the Superintendent to appoint one or more inspectors for each county in the state, with power to visit and report on the condition of the schools.

NEW JERSEY.

See Volume II. p. 173.

PENNSYLVANIA.

See Volume II. p. 18. 192.

VIRGINIA.

See Volume II. p. 131.

N. CAROLINA.

See Volume II. p. 156.

S. CAROLINA.

See Volume II. p. 156.

TENNESSEE.

See Volume II. p. 19.

MICHIGAN.

See Volume I. p. 59. Volume II. p. 168.

OHIO.

See Volume II. p. 154.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

The following notices will show to what extent this new element of modern civilization, public schools, has been introduced into every country of Europe. Without holding up either the systems or the schools as models for imitation, we would recommend to particular attention the account of the public system of elementary education in Holland and Prussia. Much of warning and instruction may be found in the school history of Scotland, and in the efforts making to introduce a system of national education into Ireland, England and France. We would gladly have extended the account of education in Switzerland if access could have been had to authentic information.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

IN

SCOTLAND, IRELAND, ENGLAND AND WALES.

SCOTLAND.

Since the era of the Revolution, the parochial schools of Scotland, have been the admiration of enlightened men in all countries. The foundations of the system were, however, laid at a much earlier period. It was enacted by the Scotch Parliament, in 1494, that all barons and substantial freeholders throughout the realm, should send their children to school from the age of six to nine years, and then to other seminaries to be instructed in the laws; that the country might be possessed of persons properly qualified to discharge the duties of sheriffs, and to fill other civil offices. Those who neglected to comply with the provisions of this statute were subjected to a penalty of £20, Scotch.

In 1560, John Knox and his compeers hold the following memorable language, in the "First Book of Discipline," presented to the nobility.

"Seeing that God has determined that his kirk here on earth shall be taught, not by angels but by men; and seeing that men are born ignorant of God and of godliness; and seeing, also, that he ceaseth to illuminate men miraculously, of necessity it is, that your honors be most careful for the virtuous education and godly upbringing of the youth of this realm. For as they must succeed to us, so we ought to be careful that they have knowledge, and erudition to profit and comfort that which ought to be most clear to us, to wit, the kirk and spouse of our Lord Jesus Christ. Of necessity, therefore, we judge it, that every several kirk have one school-master appointed; such an one at least, as is able to teach grammar and the Latin tongue, if the town be of any reputation. And further, we think it expedient, that in every notable town there should be erected a college, in which the arts at least of rhetoric and logic, together with the tongues, be read by sufficient masters, for whom honest stipends must be appointed; as also that provision be made for those that are poor, and not able by themselves or their friends, to be sustained at letters.

"The rich and potent may not be permitted to suffer their children to spend their youth in a vain idleness, as heretofore they have done; but they must be exhorted, and by the censure of the kirk compelled, to dedicate their sons by good exercises to the profit of the kirk and commonwealth; and this they must do, because they are able. The children of the poor must be supported and sustained on the charge of the kirk, trial being taken whether the spirit of docility be in them found, or not. If they be found apt to learning and letters, then may they not be permitted to reject learning, but must be charged to continue their study, so that the commonwealth may have some comfort by them; and for this purpose, must discreet, grave, and learned men be appointed to visit schools, for the trial of their exercise, profit, and continuance; to wit, the ministers and elders, with the best learned men in every town. A certain time must be appointed to reading and learning the catechism, and a certain time to grammar and to the Latin tongue, and a certain time to the arts of philosophy and the other tongues, and a certain time to that study in which they intend chiefly to travel for the profit of the Commonwealth; which time being expired, the children should either proceed to further knowledge, or else they must be set to some handicraft, or to some other profitable exercise."

In 1615, an act of the Privy Council of Scotland empowered the bishops, along with the majority of the landlords or heritors, to establish a school in every parish in their respective dioceses, and to assess the lands for that purpose. This act of the privy council was confirmed by an act of the Scotch Parliament, in 1633; and under its authority, schools were established in the lower and the more cultivated districts of the country. But the system was still far from being complete; and the means of obtaining elementary instruction continued so very deficient, that it became necessary to make a more complete and certain provision for the establishment of schools. This was done by the famous act of 1696, the preamble of which states, that "Our Sovereign Lord, considering how prejudicial the want of schools in many places has been, and how beneficial the establishing and settling thereof will be to this church and kingdom, therefore, his Majesty, with advice and consent, &c." The act went on to order, that a school be established, and a school master appointed in every parish; and it further ordered that the landlords should be obliged to build a school-house, and a dwelling-house for the use of the master; and that they should pay him a salary, exclusive of the fees of his scholars; which should not fall short of 5*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.* a year, nor exceed 11*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.* The power of nomina-

ting and appointing the school master was vested in the landlords and the minister of the parish; and they were also invested with the power of fixing the fees to be paid him by the scholars. The general supervision of the schools was vested in the presbyteries in which they are respectively situated; who have also the power of censuring, suspending, and dismissing the masters without their sentence being subject to the review of any other tribunal.

It has been usually expected that a Scotch parish school master, besides being a person of unexceptionable character, should be able to instruct his pupils in the reading of English, in the arts of writing and arithmetic, the more common and useful branches of practical mathematics, and that he should be possessed of such classical attainments as might qualify him for teaching Latin, and the rudiments of Greek.

It would be no easy matter to exaggerate the beneficial effects of the elementary instruction obtained at parish schools, on the habits and industry of the people of Scotland. It has given to that part of the empire an importance to which it has no claim, either from fertility of soil or amount of population. The universal diffusion of schools, and the consequent education of the people, have opened to all classes paths to wealth, honor, and distinction. Persons of the humblest origin have raised themselves to the highest eminence in every walk of ambition, and a spirit of forethought and energy, has been widely disseminated.

At the period when the act of 1696 was passed, Scotland, which had suffered greatly from misgovernment and religious persecutions under the reigns of Charles II. and his brother, James II., was in the most unprosperous condition. There is a passage in one of the discourses of the celebrated Scotch patriot, Fletcher of Saltoun, written in 1698, only two years after the act for the establishment of parochial schools had been passed, that sets the wretched state of the country in the most striking point of view.—"There are," says he, "at this day in Scotland, besides a great many families very meanly provided for by the church boxes, with others who, by living upon bad food, fall into various diseases, two hundred thousand people begging from door to door. These are not only no way advantageous, but a very grievous burden to so poor a country. And although the number of them be, perhaps, double to what it was formerly, by reason of this present great distress, yet in all times there has been about a hundred thousand of these vagabonds, who have lived without any regard or subjection, either to the laws of the land, or even those of God and nature. No magistrate could ever discover which way one in a hundred of these wretches died, or that ever they were baptized. Many murders have been discovered amongst them; and they are a most unspeakable oppression to poor tenants, who if they do not give bread, or some kind of provision, to perhaps forty such villains in a day, are sure to be insulted by them. In years of plenty many thousands of them meet together in the mountains, where they feast and riot for many days; and at country weddings, markets, burials, and other the like public occasions, they are to be seen, both men and women perpetually drunk, cursing, blaspheming, and fighting together. These are such outrageous disorders, that it were better for the nation they were sold for the galleys or the West Indies, than that they should continue any longer to be a burden and a curse upon us."—(First Discourse, p. 144.)

No country ever rose so rapidly from so frightful an abyss. In the autumn circuits or assizes for the year 1757, no one person was found guilty, in any part of the country, of a capital crime. And now, notwithstanding the increase of population, and a vast influx of paupers from Ireland, there are very few beggars in the country; nor has any assessment been imposed for the support of the poor, except in some of the large towns, and in the counties adjoining England; and even there it is so light as scarcely to be felt. This is a great and signal change. We cannot, indeed, go quite so far as those who ascribe it entirely to the establishment of the parochial system of education. It is, no doubt, most true, that this system has had great influence in bringing about the change; but much must also be ascribed to the establishment of a regular and greatly improved system of government; to the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions, by the act of 1748; and to the introduction of what may, in its application to the vast majority of cases, be truly said to be a system of speedy, cheap and impartial justice. Certainly, however, it was the diffusion of education that enabled the people to avail themselves of these advantages; and which has in consequence, led to a far more rapid improvement than has taken place in any other European country.

The General Assembly of the Church of Scotland has ever taken an active interest in the parochial schools. Immediately after the passage of the act of 1696, the Presbyteries were instructed to carry it into effect, and *Synods*, to make particular inquiry that it was done. In 1704, the Assembly undertook to supply schools to such part of the highlands and the islands as could not be benefited by the act of 1696. In 1705, ministers were ordered to see that no parents neglected the teaching of their children to read. In 1706, it was recommended to such as settled schoolmasters, "to prefer men who had passed their course at colleges and universities, and have taken their degrees, to such as have not." In 1707, Synods and Presbyteries were directed to send in to the General Assembly returns of the means and condition of the parochial schools.

The internal dissensions of Scotland and other causes, however, withdrew the public attention from the schools; and the advance of society in other respects, and the want of a corresponding advance in the wages of teachers, and the internal improvement of the schools, all combined to sink the condition of parochial education. In 1794, the General Assembly became roused to the subject. Visitation of the schools was enjoined on the clergy; and they were particularly instructed to inquire into the qualifications of the teachers. In 1802, the Assembly issued the following declaration, &c.

"That parochial schoolmasters, by instilling into youth the principles of religion and morality, and solid and practical instruction, contribute to the improvement, order, and success of people of all ranks; and are therefore well entitled to public encouragement: That from the decrease in the value of money, their emoluments have descended below the gains of a day labourer: That it has been found impossible to procure persons properly qualified to fill parochial schools: that the whole order is sinking into a state of depression hurtful to their usefulness: That it is desirable that some means be devised to hold forth inducements to men of good principles and talents to undertake the office of parochial schoolmasters: And that such men would prove instrumental in counteracting the operations of those who may now and afterwards attempt to poison the minds of the rising generation with principles inimical to religion, order, and the constitution in church and state."

In consequence of this declaration by the Church of Scotland, and of the complaints which were sent up from all parts of the country, parliament, in the course of the next session, passed the famous act of 1803, which ordains as follows:—

"That, in terms of the act of 1696, a school be established, and a schoolmaster appointed in every parish, the salary of the schoolmaster not to be under three hundred marks, (16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*), nor above four hundred, (22*l.* 4*s.* 5*d.*): That in large parishes, where one parochial school cannot be of any effectual benefit, it shall be competent for the heritors and minister to raise a salary of six hundred marks (33*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*), and to divide the same among two or more schoolmasters, as circumstances may require: That in every parish the heritors shall provide a school-house, and a dwelling-house for the schoolmaster, together with a piece of ground for a garden, the dwelling-house to consist of not more than two apartments, and the piece of ground to contain not less than one-fourth of a Scots acre; except in parishes where the salary has been raised to six hundred marks, in which the heritors shall be exempted from providing school-houses, dwelling-houses, and gardens: That the foregoing sums shall continue to be the salaries of parochial schoolmasters till the end of twenty-five years, when they shall be raised to the average value of not less than one chalders and a half of oatmeal, and not more than two chalders; except in parishes where the salaries are divided among two or more schoolmasters, in which case the whole sum so divided shall be raised to the value of three chalders; and so *toties quoties* at the end of every twenty-five years, unless altered by parliament: That none of the provisions of this act shall apply to parishes, which consist of a royal burgh, or part of a royal burgh: That the power of electing schoolmasters continue with the heritors and minister, a majority of whom shall also determine what branches of education are most necessary and important for the parish, and shall from time to time fix the school-fees as they shall deem expedient: That the presbyteries of the church shall judge whether candidates for schools possess the necessary qualifications, shall continue to superintend parochial schools, and shall be the sole judges in all charges against schoolmasters, without appeal or review."

In the year 1828, as the statute had provided, a small addition was made to the emoluments of the parochial schoolmas-

ters, the *maximum* salary having been increased to 34*l.* 4*s.* 4*d.*, and the *minimum* to 25*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.*

PRESENT CONDITION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

The population of Scotland in 1831 was 2,365,807; of which, 394,301, or one-sixth, should be at school. Scotland is divided into 907 parishes, including 1,005 parochial schools, attended by between 50,000 and 60,000 children. From this it would seem that not one-sixth of the juvenile population are provided for in this class of schools. It is estimated that 15,000 may be in burgh and other public schools; 25,000 in society and charity schools, and 6,610 in schools established by the General Assembly in the highlands and islands; making the total attendance 147,110; and leaving 247,190, for whose instruction no public provision has been made.

In the want of public schools, and from defects in their organization and management, private schools have been established, and to these the higher and middle classes, "influenced by a desire to give their children a better education than can be obtained in the parochial schools; and yet, more by a spirit of exclusion, send their children." It is estimated that there are as many children in the private as in the public schools. This will leave upwards of 100,000 children to grow up without the means of education.

Mr. Colquhoun, in his speech in the House of Commons in June last year (1834), estimates that there are 20,000 in this state in Glasgow alone; the whole population of that town being about 200,000. In Paisley no fewer than 14,000 are growing up without education. Mr. Colquhoun mentions other towns also, as Perth and Dundee, in which, he says, education is at a low ebb. He complains also of the state of education in the rural districts; not only as respects the highlands, where we could not look for much at present, notwithstanding the exertions of the General Assembly, but also as regards the lowlands. The worst instances of the latter kind mentioned by Mr. Colquhoun are those of two parishes, one in Dumbartonshire, and the other in Berwickshire: in the first, the fraction of the population at school is stated to be one-thirteenth, and in the second, one-fifteenth; whereas, if all between the ages of five and fifteen were at school, the fraction would be one-fifth.

After giving these and other instances of deficient education, Mr. Colquhoun remarks as follows:—"Such, then, is the state of education, and such its enormous deficiency both in the towns and rural districts of Scotland. I am aware that a different impression prevails—that Scotland ranks high in the estimation of all on the subject of education. I am sorry to disturb that impression; but I feel that it is the best and truest policy to exhibit clearly the amount of the evil, in order that you may be induced to apply yourselves to the remedy."

The gentlemen who went to Scotland as Factory Commissioners, were much disappointed at the state of education in such of the large towns as they had occasion to visit; though at many of the villages and small towns which depend on large country factories, they found a state of things which was highly gratifying. In reference to the general deficiency in education, the Central Board of Commissioners speak as follows:—

"Few will be prepared to expect the statements that will be found on this head [education] in regard to Scotland; where the education of the children is neglected to a far greater extent than is commonly believed; where only a very small number can write; where, though perhaps the majority can read, many cannot; and where, with some honourable exceptions, it seems certain that the care once bestowed on the instruction of the young has ceased to be exemplary."

Factory Schools.—Although, as we have before stated, education appears to be at rather a low ebb in the manufacturing towns in Scotland, there are nevertheless, in that country as in England, several large factories, under liberal and enlightened conductors, which may serve as models for the education afforded to the work-people and the attention paid to their comforts and happiness. Of these, the establishment of New Lanark has deservedly attracted especial attention.

The cotton-mills of New Lanark, on the right bank of the Clyde, are still under the same excellent management, with a view to the health, education, and general comfort of the workers, which prevailed during the proprietorship of the late philanthropic Mr. David Dale, of Glasgow, who founded the establishment, and of his son-in-law and successor in the mills, the well known Mr. Robert Owen.

A most extraordinary degree of attention is devoted to the

education of the children of the workers here, candidates for admission to employment in the mills. They are taught reading, writing, with the elements of geography, music, dancing, natural history, &c. in fine spacious rooms. I witnessed considerable proficiency in some of these branches; and saw eight young persons, from ten to thirteen, dance a quadrille in the very best style, under their dancing-master. Employment in the mill is looked forward to by these children with much ambition, as the reward of diligence in their studies. It is quite clear that Mr. Walker, the managing resident partner, devotes the kindest attention to his people: he is beloved by them all.

EDINBURGH SESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

The deplorable scenes of outrage and murder, which occurred in the streets of Edinburgh on the 1st of January, 1812, made the city clergy anxious to devise some means for diminishing the mass of crime and misery which was then brought to light. The scheme first proposed, and carried into execution,* was to establish sabbath schools in all the parishes within the royalty, to which they gave the name of the Parochial Institutions for Religious Education. It was soon found, however, that the usefulness of these institutions was greatly limited, in consequence of a very great number of the children, for whose benefit they were intended, being unable to read. It was therefore proposed that, in connexion with the sabbath schools, a day school should be established, which was accordingly opened on the 29th of April, 1813. This day school took the name of the Edinburgh Sessional School, from the circumstance of its being superintended by a minister or an elder from each kirk-session* in the city; the object of this school is to give instruction to the children of the poor, in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Five gratis scholars may be recommended by each kirk-session; but the charge to all the others is sixpence per month. For many years the average attendance has been about 500; so that the school-fees, together with occasional donations, and a small share of the collections made annually at the church doors for the parochial institutions, have hitherto been sufficient to meet the ordinary expenses of the school. At first, no particular regulations were laid down for conducting the Sessional School; but, after some years, the system of Dr. Bell was partially introduced. In the year 1819, circumstances led Mr. John Wood, Sheriff-Depute of the county of Peebles, to take an interest in the institution; and that benevolent individual began by degrees to give so much of his time and attention to it, that it soon became almost identified with his name. Under his superintendence, a large and commodious school-house was erected, and the system of teaching entirely remodelled. In the latter department of his meritorious labours, Mr. Wood did not adopt the particular views of any one writer on education, but collected from all what he thought useful, and arranged it into a method of his own. So judicious is this plan of tuition, that it has not only been crowned with complete success in the Sessional School, but has been introduced, either partially or entirely, into many other public and private seminaries, and has, in fact, given a new impulse to the work of elementary instruction throughout Scotland. Its general principles in the teaching of reading are thus stated by Mr. Wood himself, in an account of the Sessional School which he published some years ago: "First, to render more easy and pleasing the acquisition of the mechanical art of reading; secondly, to turn to advantage the particular instruction contained in every individual passage which is read; and thirdly, to give the pupil, by means of a minute analysis of each passage, a general command of his own language."

"In this department, the child is first taught to name so many of the letters; then so many more, with which the former are afterwards mixed up; and so forth, till the whole alphabet is in this manner exhausted. The letters are pasted

on separate little pieces of wood, and exhibited on a box, so as to be easily shifted and formed into various arrangements. After the child has mastered the alphabet, he is immediately instructed in the reading of words of two letters. It will be remarked, that we have here used the term *words* and not *syllables*. In most other schools, it is the practice to make the pupil rhyme over every possible combination of two letters into *syllables*, whether forming words or not; e. g. *ba, be, &c.; ca, ce, &c.* Such also was the practice of the Sessional School till within these very few years. With the exception of the alphabet, no part of the children's education was found so dull, so tedious, and irksome, as this; while they were, during the whole of this long preliminary process, kept quite in the dark with regard to its ultimate object. This was sufficiently testified in their vacant, dogged, and unhappy looks. An elementary book was prepared to carry the experiment into effect, containing *words* only which were familiar to the children, and which they were required to explain.

No sooner was it introduced, than its good effects in inspiring animation and activity, where all had hitherto been cold and spiritless, were immediately apparent, and excited no small astonishment, both among the elder pupils and the visitors of the seminary. It was found that the pupils were able to read interesting and instructive passages, both much sooner, and with fully as great correctness, and far more understanding than they had done before.

The first lesson consists of the eight words, *Br, He, me, we, Ye, By, fy, my*, repeated in every variety of character, and order of arrangement; and printed in the Italic as well as Roman characters.

The second lesson consists, in like manner, of the words *Go, Ho, Lo, No, So, Wo*, in every variety of character and arrangement, and mixed up at last with those of the preceding lesson.

The third lesson makes an addition of the words *On, Or, Ox, Up, Us*, on a similar plan. The fourth, in like manner, adds the words, *Am, An, As, At, If, In, Is, It*.—The fifth, which adds the irregular words, *Do, To, Oh, Ah, Ha, Ay, Of*, and comprehends, it is believed, every word of two letters in the language.

In *explaining*, at this stage, it is a special instruction to the monitors, never to exact any regular definition, but to be satisfied with any explanation given by the child himself, which indicates his knowledge of the meaning, though it be conveyed in his own ordinary or homely language, or by mere signs. The answers, accordingly, are of various kinds, and made in various forms. Sometimes the explanation is given by a somewhat equivalent term, as *Ye*, you; *Lo*, look; *Me*, myself; *Ay*, yes; *Us*, you and me; *Ho*, holloa. Very often it is given by an example, as *My*, my book; *Go*, go to school, or go home; *So*, do so; *On*, on the floor; *In*, in the school; *Oh*, oh dear; *Ah*, ah me. Sometimes it is given by a change of case, as *He*, him; *We*, us. Not unfrequently, too, as we have already mentioned, it is made by a sign, as *Me*, by pointing to one's self; *He*, by pointing to another boy. The great object, it will be remembered, of all explanations *at this stage*, is to enliven what would otherwise have been intolerably dull, to teach the child that every word he reads has a meaning, and to form him to early habits of attention.

The next lesson consists of *words* of three letters. The first of them comprehends, we believe, all those in which two consonants are followed by a vowel, viz. *fly, ply, sly, cry, dry, pry, try, sky, spy, sty, fro, fry, she, shy, the, thy, why*. Each of these is represented in the table both in the Roman and the Italic character; and to the table are subjoined short sentences in which each of them is exemplified, as, "*Why do you cry so?*" "*Is she sly or shy?*" "*If I pry I am a spy.*" Each word in this, as in the preceding lessons, is spelt by the pupils, and explanation or example is, as before, given of each. Thus a *sty* is often said to be "*a sow's house*," or "*a red and sore thing about the eye*;" *fry* is "*to fry herrings*;" and *shy* is "*afraid to speak*," or still more frequently "*feared to speak*." For the perfection of these explanations any more than of those we formerly noticed, we certainly by no means contend; but we know well that they have been found to answer their purpose, which, in our opinion, is infinitely more important.

The next table consists of those words of three letters, in which the vowel precedes the two consonants, such as *act*,

* A kirk-session is the lowest ecclesiastical court in Scotland, and consists of the clergymen of each congregation, with a small number of lay elders: it generally meets on Sunday, after public worship. The next court in point of judicial authority is the *presbytery*, which consists of all the clergymen within a certain district, with a lay elder from each congregation: this court meets once a month. All the presbyteries within given bounds form a still higher court, called a *synod*, which meets twice in the year. The *General Assembly* is the supreme judicial and legislative court of the Church of Scotland; it consists of clerical and lay representatives from the several presbyteries, of a lay elder from each royal burgh, and of a Commissioner to represent his Majesty, and holds its sittings at Edinburgh, once a year, for about a fortnight.

and, elk, elm, ink, orb, &c.; including those which have the same consonant repeated, as *all, ell, ill, &c.* To this table, as well as all the former, are annexed short sentences, in which examples are given of the words contained in it; such as, "*Is it an ash or an elm? It is an old ash.*" "*Is she to fry the egg?*" The words also are of course explained or exemplified. Thus, on mentioning the word *ebb*, the child will tell the monitor, or more probably at first will be told by the monitor, that it means "*the sea going back.*"

The third table of this class gives examples of those words, in which the vowel is placed between the consonants, as *Dab, Web, fib, rob, Cub, Bad, sed.*

After the child has become master of the lessons of three letters, he passes into the perusal of INTERESTING AND INSTRUCTIVE PASSAGES; such as the histories of Adam and Eve, Cain and Abel, &c. From the article on God we extract the following paragraph, in order to illustrate our mode of explanation in use at this stage:—

"God bids the sun to rise, and he bids it set. He doth give the rain and the dew to wet the soil: and at his will it is made dry. The heat and the cold come from him. He doth send the snow, and the ice, and the hail; and at his word they melt away. He now bids the tree to put on its leaf, but ere long he will bid the leaf to fade, and make the tree to be bare. He bids the wind to blow, and it is he who bids it to be calm. He sets a door as it were on the sea; and says to it, Thus far only must thou come."

On the above passage, the child is asked some such questions as the following: Who bids the sun to "rise?" What is meant by the sun rising? Where it rises? When it rises? What its rising occasions? Who bids it "set?" What is meant by setting? Where it sets? When it sets? What its setting occasions? What is meant by "dew?" What is meant by "soil?" What good is done by wetting the soil? When "the tree puts on its leaf?" What is meant by the leaf "fading," and "the tree being bare?" When this happens? What are "snow," and "ice," and "hail?" What causes them? Who sends the cold? What makes them "melt?" Who sends the heat? What is meant by the word "calm?" What is meant by saying, "He sets a door on the sea?" [Here we may remark in passing, that children come both to understand and to relish a figurative expression, much sooner than we might naturally be led to imagine.] When the passage is concluded, the child may be asked, Who does all these things, of which he has been reading? and what he thinks of one, who can do all these things, and who is so wise and so good as to do them? None of the questions, however, are put in any one form, but vary according to the nature of the answers received.

The child then passes into lessons composed of words of five, and afterwards, of six, letters. To render, however, the explanation of any general benefit, it is not enough that the child be able to communicate, through the assistance which he has received from his monitor, the results of what he has been reading. He must be also taught, as he goes along, to give as nearly as possible, the precise meaning of each sentence, and of every more difficult word. As a specimen of this, we shall subjoin part of an actual examination, to which we also to-day most successfully subjected one of the very young classes. One of the paragraphs, on which they were thus examined, was the following:

"The history of Abraham, of which you had a portion in your former little book, is one, that you should be sure to read with great care. This holy man, in whom all the nations of the earth were to be blessed, is in your bible again and again called by that highest of all titles, 'The Friend of God'; and he is there held out as a pattern for all God's people to follow. You ought then to study well his life, and try to do after his example, if you would wish also to have God for your friend."

Upon this passage the children were asked:

What is meant by "a history?" And by "a portion?" What "former little book" they spoke of? And what it is "to read with great care?" What a "holy man" is? Who is here meant by "this holy man?" How all the nations of the earth were to be blessed in Abraham? [The child, to whom this question was put, answered, "By means of Jesus Christ." We then asked what Jesus Christ had to do with Abraham? To which he replied that he was of the family of Abraham. We asked if Christ was Abraham's son in the same manner that Isaac and Ishmael were? To which he answered that "he was his son's son's son's," evidently meaning that he was of a remote generation.] What is the "Bible?" What is meant by again and again? [To which the child answered, "over and over."]

What is meant by a title? [To which the answer was, "a great name."] What was the title by which Abraham was called? "He is there held out as a pattern." What do you mean by "there?" What is "a pattern?" Who are "God's people?" What is meant by "studying well Abraham's life?" What is it to "do after his example?" [To which the answer was, "To do as he did."] How may we have God for our friend?

The Second Book, besides carrying the child forward in Scripture History, through the remarkable incidents in the lives of ISAAC, JACOB, ESAU, and JOSEPH, presents him with much interesting as well as useful instruction in the department of Natural History, such as an account of the dog, its fidelity, its various species, and the purposes to which they are applied; the horse, with the various methods of catching and taming it; the sheep, the cow, and hog, with the various uses to which their flesh, milk, skin, wool, horns, bones, gristles, fat, blood, &c. are applied; the swallow, the herring, and salmon, with their migrations and other peculiarities; the oyster, and particularly that valuable species of it, the pearl oyster, with some account of the pearl fishery; the bee, with the wonderful skill which it displays in making honey and wax; the caterpillar, and particularly the silk-worm, with the various changes through which it passes, and the purposes to which the silk is applied; the oak, and fir, with the uses which are made of their timber and bark,—of the acorns, galls, apples, (as they are called,) and saw-dust of the oak, and juice of the fir; the cotton, corn, flax, and hemp plants, with their important uses, and the various processes and hands, through which they must pass, before they are finally converted to their respective uses; the seeds of plants in general, with the wonderful provisions which had been made for their security, their turning themselves into their proper position in the earth, and their propagation: minerals in general, with their several species and respective uses; the manufacture of pins and glass, and the various purposes to which the latter article is applied; together with other miscellaneous information, of a kind interesting to young minds, and calculated to impress them with a due sense of the blessings of education, such as descriptions of savage manners, &c. Every one of these passages the children of the Sessional School are taught not only to read, but to understand. Hence the fondness, which they acquire for reading all other books from which they may obtain similar information; and hence, in a great measure, that extent of knowledge, which has often astonished the visitors of the school, and been called in question by those, who have never witnessed the effects of similar training.

In the early stages, it is, of course, absolutely necessary to point out to them many things, which they cannot fail to notice for themselves at a latter period; such, for example, as the words for which the pronouns are substituted: while, in the more advanced stages, higher and more general information may be communicated to them, regarding both words and things, than would be at all profitable at any earlier one. The following will illustrate the method. The passage is from an article on glass:—

"You have already, in the course of this little work, read of several very extraordinary changes, which human art and ingenuity have been able to make upon natural productions. You have heard of the shroud of a worm in its lifeless state, of the fruit of one plant and the fibres of another, being all converted into articles of dress for human beings. But perhaps none of these transformations have surprised you more than that which you are now to hear of. Would you believe, that so clear and beautiful an article as glass, could be made out of so gross a substance as sand? Yet it is the fact, that glass is made by mixing sand with the ashes of certain burnt plants, and exposing them to a strong fire."

On this passage the child, besides describing generally how glass is made, is asked, What is meant by "art?" What is meant by "human art and ingenuity?" What are "natural productions?" Can you tell me any of them? What is a "shroud?" What worm has its shroud "converted into an article of dress?" Can you tell me the various changes through which that worm passes? Do you know any of the uses to which silk is put? What plant is it of which the fruit is converted into an article of dress? Are there more than one kind of cotton plant? Which is the best? Do you know any thing that is made of cotton? Can you tell me of any plant of which "the fibres are converted into an article of dress?" Do you know any piece of dress that is made of flax? Do you remember the various hands through which the flax must pass before it becomes a shirt? What do you mean by "transformations?" What is meant by a "gross substance?" &c.

As the pupil advances, each passage is subjected to a more minute analysis, as for example:—

"How shall I describe to you the vast variety of wonderful and romantic prospects that we have seen since we came into Switzerland? These charming views are varied with mountains, whose snowy heads seem to reach the skies; craggy rocks and steep precipices, with foaming torrents gushing from the crevices in their sides, delightfully intermixed with beautiful valleys, adorned with groves of fur, beech and chestnut; clear lakes, rapid rivers, cata-

racts, and bridges of one arch, extending a surprising width from rock to rock. The cultivated parts of the mountains are covered with villages and scattered cottages; and then, the insides of the cottages are so very neat, and look so comfortable, that I should like to live in some of them that are situate in the most delightful spots, were it not for the dread of being swallowed up in one of those enormous masses of snow, that frequently roll from the tops of the mountains, and destroy everything in their way. In going to the tops of the mountains of Switzerland, you may enjoy all the seasons of the year in the same day," &c.

After reading the passage, the children are required to recapitulate, in their own language, the substance of what they have read, and describe the peculiar character of the Swiss scenery, the interior appearance of the dwellings of the peasantry, the particular dangers to which they are exposed, the variety of climate and its cause, and to mention any other scenery of a similar kind which is nearer home; such, for example, as the highlands of Scotland. But, as the passage is read in school, not merely for the purpose of communicating to them the direct information which it contains, however interesting in itself, but like all the other passages which they read to render them familiar with their own language, to act as a vehicle for the communication of general knowledge, and as a field for examination on that which has formerly been communicated, they are also called upon to answer some such questions as the following, or at least, as many of them as the pupil is not already acquainted with, or the time specially set apart for such examination will permit.

What is Switzerland? What are its boundaries? What is the literal meaning of the word "describe"? What does the first part of that word signify? Can you give any other examples of that syllable having the same signification? (such as *descend, depress, degrade*.) What does the termination "scribe," signify? Can you tell any of its other compounds with their various meanings? (Here the pupil will mention and explain the words *inscribe, prescribe, subscribe, superscribe, circumscribe, proscribe, conscribe, ascribe*. What is meant by "variety"? From what verb does it come? What other words are derived from this verb? What is the meaning of "romantic"? From what word does it come? What is a "prospect"? What does the syllable *pro* signify? Can you give any other example of it? (such as *progress, project*.) What does the termination *spect* denote? Mention some of the other words from the same root, (such as *aspect, retrospect, circumspect, inspect, expect*.) What word signifies, "that can be seen"? and the opposite? What is the difference between a "mountain" and a *hill*? What is the diminutive from *hill*? What is an inhabitant of the "mountains" called? What is the adjective from "mountain"? Mention some of the principal mountains of Switzerland? What other name is given to "heads of mountains"? What are "craggy rocks"? What are "precipices"? Do you know any other words from the same root? What are "torrents," and "crevices"? What is meant by "intermixed"? What does the first part of that word denote? Give some other examples of its application, (such as *interval, intermediate, intercede*.) What are "valleys"? Does the adjective "beautiful," ever take any other termination? What is the verb from it? What are "lakes"? What are they called in Scotland? Mention some of the principal lakes in Switzerland, describing their respective situations. Mention also, in like manner, some of its principal "rivers." What are "cataracts"? What is the literal meaning of the word "extending"? What does the former part of that word signify? Can you give any other examples of its application? (such as *extract, expel*.) What does the latter part signify? Can you mention any of its other compounds? (such as *distend, pretend*.) What do you mean by "cultivated"? What word expresses the art of *cultivating fields*? and the art of *cultivating gardens*? What are "villages"? What is the *inhabitant of a village* called? What do you call a *smaller collection of houses than a village*? What do you mean by "scattered cottages"? Is there any difference between a "cottage" and a *hut*? or what? Could you express "the *insides of the cottages*" in any other way?

In order to illustrate our method of teaching grammar, let us take the commencement of a passage in the school collection:—"The grandest, the most sublime, and extraordinary object, we have yet seen is *Fingal's cave*, in the *isle of Staffa*. It is a natural grotto of stupendous size, formed by ranges of columns," &c. If the class be only commencing this study, after telling them that all names are *nouns*, we desire them to pick out the nouns in the passage before them; when the first boy will give "object," the second, "*Fingal's*," the third, "*cave*," and so forth, till they have exhausted the remaining nouns, "*isle*," "*Staffa*," "*grotto*," "*size*," "*ranges*," "*columns*." When they are a little farther advanced, the first boy at the time of naming the noun, "object," will be asked why it is "object," and not *objects*, and the distinction of *singular* and *plural* will be pointed out to him, and so on with the rest. After a little time, in place of putting the question in this form, the boy will be asked at once whether the noun is *singular* or *plural*? why?

and what it would have been if it had been plural? As soon as these words *singular* and *plural* are so familiar, as not only to be easily distinguished from each other, but readily brought to recollection, the question is put in this form, Of what *number* is *object*? why? &c. A similar process is observed with regard to the *genders*.—*Wood's Account, &c.*

The etymological instruction introduced by Mr. Wood is one of the most striking features of his method. The teaching is also inductive, and even incidental to the reading, though, of course, the teacher must have a plan or systematic arrangement in his own mind, that important omissions may not occur. As an example of their etymological lessons, suppose the pupil, in reading, meets the word "introduce," he is made to divide it, "intro" and "duce." He is told that "intro" is a prefix from the Latin, and means within. He is asked for some other word beginning with "intro," and soon exhausts "introduction," "introductory," &c. The other part is next taken up, and its meaning (to lead) is explained. Examples of it are given by different members of the class, as "adduce," "conduce," "deduce," "educate," "induce," "induction," "produce," &c. The teacher takes care that no important word is omitted in furnishing these examples. The true knowledge of the meaning of words thus acquired has led to the use of the method even in the classical schools, where it is found to furnish a new motive to study, by placing one application of his knowledge immediately before the pupil. The great command of words which it must give, when derivations from different ancient and modern languages are thus called for, is quite obvious.

The instruction in geography is entirely by the use of maps and oral explanations; places are pointed out on a map, and information given in respect to them. When their relative positions are well fixed in the pupil's mind, the points marking them are transferred to a black board, with or without an outline of the limits of the country where they are situated, and the pupil is exercised in naming them; similar plans are pursued in regard to other parts of the subject. This, as well as other branches of Mr. Wood's method, approaches closely to that used in the best German schools, and requires considerable attainments in the teachers. If left to monitors, it cannot fail to lose its spirit.

The exercises in arithmetic are among the most striking in the school. Mental arithmetic is particularly cultivated, and the higher classes acquire an extraordinary facility in its accurate use. It is begun simultaneously with the second book of reading, and the lessons generally consist in part of mental and in part of written arithmetic, one portion of the time being devoted exclusively to exercises, another to teaching a new rule with examples. The dull method of working through the questions of a book is not countenanced, the instruction as well as examples being given by the teacher or monitor.

In writing, which is begun upon the slate, as well as in cyphering, the pencil is put into a tin tube, that the child may not acquire a bad habit of holding it. Steel pens are used here, and in several other schools which I visited, and answer well.

In regard to discipline and other school and class arrangements, this establishment is not peculiar. Mr. Wood regards corporal punishment as necessary, but requires that it should be used as seldom as possible. He is also an advocate for the system of places in a class, and of prizes for scholarship, but would especially encourage self-emulation, the principle upon which some other teachers rely entirely, to the exclusion of the first. He disapproves of tasks or confinement in the school room, as associating study and school with ideas of punishment.

This institution is a remarkable instance of an intellectual reform, beginning with a charity school, and extending upwards. It is but too often the case that schools for the poor are considered as appropriate of a lower grade than others.—*Bache's Report.*

HIGH SCHOOL OF GLASGOW.

The high school of Glasgow, is a public institution and prepares students for the university, and for the pursuits of commerce, manufactures and the arts. There are separate courses, of classics, English mathematics, writing and drawing, which are so arranged, that any one may be followed alone, or several at a time. This arrangement adapts it to the wants of a manufacturing and commercial city.

The *classical department* prepares for the University of Glasgow, and as pupils may enter there at an early age, and require no very advanced attainments for admission, the studies of this school are comparatively elementary. The course lasts four years, and a private class may be followed for a fifth, by those who do not intend to pursue an academical career, or who wish to begin it better prepared than is usual. Greek is begun in the third year.

The *English department* answers two purposes, it prepares very young pupils for the other classes, and it carries forward the more advanced through the higher courses of grammar, logic and belles lettres.

This admirable course may be thus arranged, according to the subjects:

1. *Alphabet Class.* Reading and spelling taught. Lessons on objects. *Class books.* Wood's Elementary Books. Elliot's Natural History.

2. *English reading Class.* Bible teaching and training as the foundation of moral and religious knowledge. Readings in Biography, Natural and Civil History, Elementary Science, &c. Grammar for beginners. Spelling, meaning, and derivation of words. *Class books.* The Bible, Companion to the Bible, Wood's Instructive extracts, First Grammar, English Etymologist.

3. *English Reading Class.* Lessons in Natural History, Manufactures &c. illustrated by specimens and experiments. Grammar incidentally. Spelling orally and by dictation. Elements of composition by weekly practice in letter writing. *Class books.* Book of Trades, English Etymologist, Parley's Natural History.

4. *History Class.* Familiar Lectures, Ancient History and Biography, Modern History.

5. *Readings from the British Classics.* Grammar and composition. Recitations.

6. *Grammar.* Science and art of grammar. Pronunciation, Orthography, by dictation. Derivation of words. Synonyms. Punctuation. Composition. Practice in letter writing, and in the analysis of narrative and descriptive pieces. *Class books.* McCulloch's Grammar. Booth's or Irvine's Composition. Carpenter's Synonyms.

7. *Higher parts of Grammar.* General Grammar. Outlines of Logic, with exercises in composition. Elements of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres. English Literature. *Class books.* Crombie's Etymology and Syntax. Duncan's Logic, or Abridgment of Whately's Logic. Abridgement of Blair's Lectures.

Each of these classes has, in general, one hour of recitation every day, but the more advanced pupils attend, usually more than one of them. The methods of teaching adopted by the English master* are among the best which I saw abroad. He has combined the knowledge of things with that of words. His pupils are as well trained in the knowledge of realities as in a school of a disciple of Pestalozzi, and in verbal knowledge as those of Mr. Wood. He relies more on the training of the school-room than is usual in England, and yet does not neglect the encouragement of study at home.

The lessons on objects are illustrated by neat cabinet specimens of minerals, geological specimens, objects of art, &c. Mineralogy is early introduced as affording a pleasant stimulus during the walks of the pupils. Practical geology is, to a certain extent, useful in the same way; but I cannot assent to the introduction of theoretical generalizations, which are received by the pupils as established principles, and which make it difficult for them, in after life to separate the theories of the science from its facts. A knowledge of trades forms a second part of this instruction, and the various establishments of Glasgow are visited by the teacher and pupils. Habits of observation, of analysis, and of order are thus inculcated, while much knowledge not only of art, but of the people among whom they are to move, is acquired.

The method of teaching orthography seems to me an improvement upon that of the German schools. Besides the ordinary system of dictation, the master writes upon the black-board, by direction of one of the class, a word which is to be spelled, the pupil naming the letters. Criticism is called for from the class, and among those who signify, by a sign, that they wish to make a correction, the master selects one. He alters the word according to the direction of the pupil, submits it anew to criticism and so on. The whole class is thus kept alive, a result which marks the ability of a teacher, in a way not to be mistaken. The same words are parsed in the grammar class, the use of the black-board enabling the teacher to make the instruction really simultaneous, where, otherwise it would be individual.

Themes, or short essays, intended to introduce words assigned by the teacher, and more advanced essays, upon specified subjects or written by the pupils, and read in the class, attention being roused by permitting criticism by the pupils themselves. In the reading lessons, correction by any one of the class is allowed, the successful corrector taking the turn of the reader. These, and various other applications of the same general principle, of rendering the instruction simultaneous, make this school very remarkable. The arrangement of the school-room, with benches on raised platforms, is an important aid in the use of the method. The paraphrases of Whately's Logic, and other exercises in this branch, which I heard from the elder pupils, were very good. The historical lessons were illustrated by numerous drawings, calculated to convey accurate

* Mr. Alexandre J. Dorsey, who, having travelled on the continent and at home for improvement in methods of teaching, has adopted an eclectic method, which produces excellent results. He has especially studied the secret of the great success in the more modern German Schools, and has followed out their methods.

general information, and to impress the memory through the eye; the pupils change places, as in other schools, though this forms by no means the main dependence of the teacher for securing attention. Corporal punishment is not at all resorted to.

Between each hour of recitation is an interval of ten minutes for recreation, during which, also, the air of the school-room is thoroughly changed. Both these are important details, and are very commonly overlooked.

The *commercial and mathematical department*, besides uniting in a complete course with the classical and English departments, gives special instruction to clerks, book-keepers, surveyors, navigators, &c. The branches taught are geography (principally to pupils from nine to twelve years of age, from the other departments,) physical geography, and the elements of astronomy, arithmetic, geometry, trigonometry, heights and distances, mensuration, algebra, including quadratic equations, and logarithms. The higher mathematics, including the differential and integral calculus, and the elements of natural philosophy. The *department of foreign languages* furnishes instruction in French and German. The *writing and drawing departments* are each under the charge of a separate master, and the first is subsidiary, in a degree, to the general objects of the school. A *chemical course* has recently been added to the foregoing, on a plan to which I shall refer more particularly hereafter, in which the pupils manipulate. It is intended for boys from seven to fourteen years of age. The high school possesses a library and an increasing collection in natural history. It furnishes, by the private exertions of its teachers, to the inhabitants of Glasgow, in addition to the regular courses for youth, others, for adults, which, in some departments, are well attended.—*Bache's Report.*

NORMAL SEMINARY OF THE GLASGOW EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY.

The objects of the Glasgow Educational Society, are principally two: first, to provide a particular system; and second, to extend it. The system which has been provided, is one not of mere teaching, but of training throughout in every department, physical, moral and intellectual. The first, namely the physical, must, of course, from its very nature be training, *not teaching*. The second has hitherto in almost all cases, been instruction rather than training, from an impression that moral instruction and moral training mean the same thing. Moral instruction is certainly not moral training, although it is included in it. Intellectual training, whether on secular or sacred subjects, (both being equally intellectual, according to the system established and pursued in this institution,) is a picturing out of every subject and object, so as to enable the child to deduce the lesson; or rather, by analyzing and illustrating every sentence, in which the child takes a principal part, along with the natural process of question and ellipsis mixed, and, bringing to account all his previously acquired knowledge, the child is trained to deduce the lesson without the usual explanation by the master. He is quite prepared for this, by the subject having been presented to his mind in all its parts and relations, as in a picture. The same natural principle is followed out in this department which the nurse adopts in the physical, when she trains the child to walk, not by carrying it in her arms, but by assisting its weakness and inexperience, and at the same time, causing it to use its limbs in the exercise. This is the system which has been adopted by the Society as its own, and which it is desirous to extend and perpetuate, by training school masters in a Normal seminary. There are therefore model schools upon the system, arranged and suited for the training of children of from two to fourteen years of age; and secondly, the training of grown persons, who when practically exercised on the system in all its departments, physical, moral and intellectual, are termed trainers. Every school formed and arranged according to the principles of the system, and conducted by a competent trainer, or master, is termed a training school, whatever may be the age of the children attending it. The use and union of a school gallery and play-ground with the principles of mental and moral discipline naturally connected therewith, as first established in this Institution, is a new and most important feature in popular education.

Until the systematic mode of picturing out sacred and secular subjects in the intellectual department was introduced into the Model schools, all attempts at extending moral training here and elsewhere, failed beyond a very few months of infancy.

Picturing out, therefore, is not only highly valuable in itself, as a most natural, interesting and impressive mode of intellectual communication; but by the saving in each lesson which the simultaneous exercise of the gallery affords, it has in a great measure enabled the society to extend moral training on a sacred and scriptural basis (the only true moral training,) to juvenile or ordinary parochial and private schools.

The model schools of the Glasgow Normal Seminary, consist of three departments; yet one unbroken system is maintained throughout, namely, the Infant for children under six years of age; Juve-

nile, for those of six to twelve or fourteen; and Female School of Industry for girls of ten years and upwards. These three model schools, with sixteen class-rooms, Secretary's rooms, Student's Hall, and five play-grounds, &c., for training children and students (the future trainers,) are the platform of the Normal seminary.

MODEL INFANT SCHOOL.

The mechanical arrangements of the school are, first, the school-room, with its platforms as usual raised in steps, called the gallery, occupying a considerable part of the breadth of the room. Second, the lesson-posts and forms, where the little classes assemble under their monitors. Third, the detached room, where the master may retire with a class. Fourth, the play-ground, with its implements for exercise and amusement, its flowers and fruits. The school room is but tolerably well ventilated, though, no doubt, this will be remedied in a house built expressly for the purposes of the school. It is hung round with boards, on which, in large letters, are inscribed words or religious sentiments, or on which are pictures of animals, &c. The raised platform, in steps of due height, and where both boys and girls* are seated, combines many advantages; it enables the teacher distinctly to see every pupil, and in turn the pupils to see the master and each other. Thus the power of imitation and sympathy, which play so great a part in education, are brought to bear under the most advantageous circumstances.

It is in this gallery that the most important exercises are given. The school opens with a short prayer, adapted to the comprehension of the children, order being first secured, if there are untrained pupils among them, by the aid of short physical exercises, raising and lowering the hands, rising and sitting down, and so on—such exercises never failing to produce this result. The children assembled here listen to the Bible lesson, the master occupying the front and centre of the little assemblage, with the Bible-stand to support his book, and by its side the whistle and bell, which are to convey signals intended to secure prompt obedience. The lesson having been read, it is broken up into detached parts. The simple ones afford matter for direct questions, or the children are led to understand them by other preliminary questions, proceeding always from the known to the unknown. Replies from many are secured by the elliptical form of answer, in which the master leaves a simple but emphatic word, or part of a word, to be supplied. These are impressed upon all by a repetition of the ellipsis, the filling up of which all have now caught from those who first supplied it, and finally the whole answer is repeated. The Bible lesson is frequently one of civil or natural history and geography. Simplicity in question is the desideratum in this and other exercises. The master must descend to the level of the child, or he effects nothing. Singing a hymn, or physical exercises, or the inspection which ensures cleanliness, will vary this course, and above all, care must be taken that the attention of the children is kept up. If this fails, it is the master himself who fails. A principle which, if at all admitted, in more advanced education, does not occupy the place which it deserves.

The gallery serves also for the lessons on objects, or pictures of objects, where simple specimens from the animal, vegetable and mineral kingdom, or of artificial productions, are made the subjects of actual examination or of description. Their properties, as far as may be, are observed by the children, led by the master, who directs their feeble perceptions. Words to express their ideas are furnished, when the want of these words is felt. With those somewhat advanced, the printed or written word is shown and imitated on the slate.

At an earlier period the letter which begins the word is selected from a series of large brass letters, cut out for this purpose, and is held before the pupil, and its name or its most common sound in combination given. A word beginning with the same letter is suggested by a pupil, another and another may be written on the board and copied, and all or any of them may be made the subject of instructive exercise.

At a later day the exercise of practical grammar, which will be explained when speaking of the juvenile school, is added. When places are spoken of, objects or pictures are shown in connexion with them. The children are in the gallery also during their arithmetic lessons, when the ball frame, so well known in all infant schools, is substituted for the Bible-stand, and the teacher gives his lessons by question and answer elliptically, by teaching a song in which the ellipsis of a word occurs in each line, or by the pupils singing simple songs already learned. These impress the easy operations of infant arithmetic powerfully upon the memory. The eye and ear are thus improving with the intellect, or the eye is exercised by the determination of angles by the jointed instrument, called a gonigraph, or by geometrical figures. The children are also in the gallery when hearing from the master a story, embodying circum-

stances of a moral tendency, or calculated to instruct or amuse, or to arouse curiosity. This is one of the exercises they are most fond of, and which, if the master be apt, may be made as useful as any. The characters of the great and the good may be brought before them, their feelings interested, and thus early elevated, their patriotism excited, and evil tendencies repressed. It is the peculiar feature of this school to draw such stories often from the sacred volume, and in general, as an illustration of how attractive these may be rendered, it may be stated, that when left to choose the kind of story they will have, the children prefer a Bible history to any other. These various exercises of course are not continuous, nor do they even occur, sometimes, on the same day, and each of them is interrupted frequently for exercise, especially with untrained children.

The elliptical method spoken of is to omit the last or some important word of a sentence, taking care that it is one easily supplied by the children, and which leaves the sentence plainly imperfect until it is given. Thus the children are engaged in a kind of conversation with the teacher, interesting to them because they are parties in it, and watching keenly the sentence, that they may seize the wanting word. In the ellipsis used in this school, the first sounds of a word are frequently supplied, requiring the little assembly to suggest the rest. I observed a great difference in the facility with which the children supplied the ellipsis of their master, by whom they were in the habit of being questioned, and that of others by whom they were addressed, but found that it arose, generally, from the too great rapidity of the uninitiated teachers, by which they did not allow the children time to think and to answer. This explanation supposes the ellipsis well contrived. The method of responses is frequently varied, by inducing some one or more of the children to ask questions of the class, two or more of each other, or one or more to volunteer to be questioned by the class. From the whole of this method, emulation as a principle is excluded, it is not needed, and indeed it is truly held that it would be pernicious. I was surprised, in witnessing some of these exercises, at the accuracy with which the children stated their questions, resulting entirely from the imitation of the perspicuous style of the master. On the subject of imitative powers at this early age, many facts might be brought together; one struck me so much that I mention it here. I never visited an infant school in which the voice of the master or mistress were agreeable in singing, without finding melody among the children, and vice versa. It is recorded in this school that nearly all the children learn to sing agreeably.

The passage from the gallery to the lesson posts is performed while singing, and always in regular order. Sometimes an interval of out or in-door exercise separates the lessons. The monitors are chosen by the master, or offer themselves by the holding up of hands, when he calls for it, before the children leave the gallery. Each monitor has a class of half a dozen or more, to whom he explains the picture suspended upon their particular reading-post, and the letters or words beneath it. The classes change posts, after a reasonable interval, and the monitor has a new set to drill. Such teaching is not to be expected to be efficient, but it nevertheless answers a good purpose at this age. The lesson-posts are arranged so that the board on which the lesson is posted may be readily changed, and so that its height may be varied to suit the size of the pupils receiving the lesson. The boards are covered with colored prints of animals, representations of trades, of costumes &c. No formal attempt is made to teach reading, but it is found without it that the children insensibly learn to read. A useful exercise for the more advanced children, requiring study at home, and which also frequently excites the attention of parents, is to give them cards, with questions relating to natural history, &c., to be answered on a subsequent day. The answers are sometimes required from particular parts of the Bible.

Behind the gallery are the places for hanging the caps and cloaks of the children, which they are trained to put off and to take again in an ordinary manner. The detached room enables a master to hear any class which he may wish, apart from the others, the mistress meanwhile superintending the school, or to teach the monitors, or furnishes a place for the noon luncheon, which many of the children bring with them.

The play ground in the system of this school is considered the "uncovered school-room," the true place for moral training, where the principles inculcated within are to be carried into practice, and where the tempers and dispositions show themselves more fully, in unrestrained intercourse, than in the school. There is in it a circular swing for exercise, wooden prisms in the proportions of bricks, for amusement, and flowers and fruits, to train them to respect the goods of others and of the public.

The master is constantly with, or overlooking them, sometimes mixing in their sports, or showing them new or amusing games, and always attentive to their development of character, but unless in extraordinary cases, his interference is not necessary. The benevolence of some children prevents or remedies the accidents incident to their plays, and justice insures a tolerably equal share of

*It is considered most important to infant training, that both boys and girls should be united under a class under a master and mistress.

the sports. When a fault is committed, it is noticed after the assembling of the children in the gallery, where the public opinion of his equals in age is brought to bear upon the offender by a judicious series of questions from the master, without, however, making the punishment a public one, by directly designating the individual who is under censure. Punishments in or out of school are adapted to the tender age of the child, and addressed to his peculiar temperament. Corporal punishment, even of the mildest kind, is seldom found necessary.

When the play-ground cannot be used, the want is supplied, as far as possible, by games within doors, which are, however, very imperfect substitutes for those in the open air.—*Bache's Report.*

JUVENILE TRAINING SCHOOL.

DAILY COURSE.

Doors open ten minutes before nine o'clock, A. M. Children assemble in play-ground, under the moral superintendence of the master.

Five minutes before nine o'clock. First bell rings.

Quarter-past nine o'clock. Second bell rings.

Half-past nine o'clock. All seated in perfect order in the gallery, Hymn, Prayer and Bible training with the whole scholars.*

Quarter-past ten o'clock. FIRST DIVISION, under the master, in large gallery, at Reading and Spelling, Grammar, or Geography and History, &c. SECOND DIVISION, under the assistant, at Reading, Spelling, Exercises on objects, &c.

THIRD DIVISION, at ditto, under oldest monitor.

Eleven o'clock. The whole scholars in the play-ground, under the superintendence of the master.

Half-past eleven o'clock. The whole assemble in school-room. Conduct in play-ground reviewed, then file off in divisions.

FIRST and SECOND DIVISIONS at Arithmetic, standing in a circular form round the large black-boards, in the gallery, or sitting at the side-desks.

THIRD DIVISION, in class-room gallery, under assistant master, at reading, Spelling, exercises on objects, &c.

Half-past twelve o'clock. Lunch and play, under the moral superintendence of the Masters, who take lunch in school. All the children may bring dinner, which, as a practical exercise on honesty, ought to lie in open closets.

Half-past one o'clock. Secular training lesson† in gallery of school-room to FIRST and SECOND DIVISIONS, under head-master.

Secular training to THIRD or youngest division, under assistant master, in gallery of class room.

Two o'clock. FIRST and SECOND DIVISIONS at Writing.

THIRD DIVISION at reading, grammar, &c. &c., chiefly in the gallery, or in small classes on forms placed in parallel lines.

Quarter to three o'clock. The whole scholars in play-ground, under the superintendence of the master.

Quarter-past three o'clock. All meet in gallery. Conduct reviewed.

FIRST and SECOND DIVISIONS under first and second masters at reading, or etymology, or mental composition, &c.

THIRD DIVISION, under Senior monitors.

Four o'clock. The whole school seated in large gallery. Hymn. Prayer.

Dismissal.

School closes on Saturday at eleven o'clock.

A lively marching air is sung by the children during almost every movement to and from the gallery and play-ground.

Bible training, including the hymn and morning prayer, does not occupy quite an hour; the rest of the day is divided between the elementary branches, scientific exercises, and moral and physical discipline. The moral superintendence of the whole, however, proceeds on the principle, that even the amusements of the play-ground must be conducted in subservience to the law and rule of God; in fact, that religion enters into the every-day occurrences of life.

It must be admitted by all who have made the trial with children, that the simple reading of the scriptures seldom, if ever, brings out to their minds the full meaning of any passage, with the exception of the narratives; and even these very imperfectly. This is more particularly the case with the emblems and imagery in which the Bible abounds. To reach their full meaning, beauty, and force, a knowledge of geography, eastern manners and customs, natural history, and science, to a considerable extent is indispensable.

"A child entering from the infant school is prepared for the instruction and discipline of this: his education goes on in the same way and with the same spirit here as in the former school. Other

* DAILY BIBLE TRAINING READ FROM THE SCRIPTURES BY AND WITH THE CHILDREN.

Monday.—Old Testament Biography.

Tuesday.—Illustrations and emblems.

Wednesday.—New Testament Biography.

Thursday.—Moral duties, from Bible examples, and precepts, promises, &c.

Friday.—Parables and Miracles.

Saturday.—Bible Geography and History.

† DAILY SECULAR TRAINING EXERCISES.

Monday.—Animated Nature—Rational and Irrational, alternately.

Tuesday.—Domestic Economy, and the Arts of Life, alternately.

Wednesday.—Elements of Science.

Thursday.—Vegetable and Mineral Kingdoms, alternately.

Friday.—Elements of Science.

children entering at six, may have positively bad habits to eradicate. Experience has proved, however, that they may be trained with the others, only at a greater cost of time and labor. In this system, as in the corresponding infant school system, the play ground is the "uncovered school," and the moral training goes on in it; hence the pupils must necessarily be under the superintendence of the master, who notices their aberrations without interfering, unless when absolutely necessary, and makes a school room lesson of their conduct. The effective character of this training is proved by the fact that one hundred and eighty children of the lower classes of Glasgow were in the daily habit, for five months, of frequenting the play-ground of the school, without any injury to the borders planted with flowers, shrubs and fruits.

If the pupils have come from the Infant School, they are in part prepared to read without the necessity of referring to first elements. In the alphabet class there are pictorial representations to impress the words upon the memory. An orthographical desk is described in Mr. Stow's book, as an auxiliary to this exercise, but I did not see it in the school. It contains compartments or small boxes, each of which has within it several sets of a letter of the alphabet, printed on paper and pasted on small square plates of wood. Other boxes contain pictures. The child selects a picture, and spells the name of the object, forming the word with the letters taken from his set of boxes. Another method of learning the alphabet and spelling, recommended by Mr. Stow, is to select a letter on a printed page, calling it by name, and requiring the child, as an exercise, to point out every recurrence of the same letter on the page. Among the various methods of teaching to read which have been tried, I regret not to have seen in use, so as to form an opinion of its success, Jacotot's method of teaching, by beginning with words instead of letters, especially as it has been supposed particularly applicable to our language owing to the various sounds belonging to the same letter. It is the fact, that the children in the Infant School at Glasgow actually recognize the words, and can name them at sight before they can spell them.

For the introduction of the admirable exercise on the roots, construction and meaning of English words, the Scottish schools are indebted to Mr. Wood, of Edinburgh.

By practical grammar is meant such as the pupil can obtain by his own induction or by teaching, aided by his own comparisons. It is the true elementary grammar, and the name practical does not seem to me well chosen. I can give a clearer idea of it by an example. Several things are named over to a class—hat, desk, chair, &c. These are the names of things. They are called nouns. Or, to employ the elliptical method of the school, these are the names of —, leaving to the pupils to reply — things. If it is perceived that all have not caught the answer, the class are made to repeat it. They are called nouns, is stated by the master. A noun is the name of a — thing, the ellipsis being supplied by the class. Further. You wish me to give you a stick of what kind? A short, a long, a smooth, &c., will be answered. Short, long, &c., are qualities of the stick. They are called adjectives. Short is an — adjective. Stick is a — noun. An adjective is the quality of a — noun. Combining such exercises with pictorial representations of the parts of speech, and varying them until they suit the mind of every pupil, an indelible impression is made. A foundation is laid for grammar by rules taught in the higher classes, which should, however, be so accompanied by exercises as to be quite as practical as this.

The practical geography consists also of elements, but taught in a much less natural way than in the German schools already spoken of. Fictitious travelling should follow a knowledge of home; putting a map into a boy's hand, without explanation, is not likely to lead to much inquiry. The methods of this school, however, it should be considered, are in a great degree experimental.

In speaking of the courses in the German eleemosynary institutions, I have already said so much of mental arithmetic, that it is not necessary to dwell here again upon it. It has been permanently adopted in many of the English schools, where other improvements have been slowly introduced. The lessons in arithmetic are begun with the ball frame used for infant instruction.

Sacred geography is used not only for the purpose of making the pupils accurately acquainted with the localities mentioned in the Scriptures, and with the curious physical state of the country, with its manners and customs and profane history, but as an incentive to them to search out from specified parts of the Bible the verses where particular places are mentioned, and to connect with the localities the incidents of the narrative.

The lessons in objects are modified from those arranged by Miss Mayo, and are adapted to the different ages of an elementary school. They are intended as guides to teachers in communicating oral instruction in regard to the objects met with in common life. The box of objects connected with them contains, in the small compass of less than three-sixteenths of a cubic foot, one hundred and twelve specimens of various productions of nature and art in differ-

ent countries, each of which may form some part of an instructive conversation. These lessons are supplementary to those of the infant school, in which more common specimens are used. They serve not only to give the direct mental exercise and the information, which are their principal purposes, but incidentally are made the means of instruction in orthography, writing and grammar. In their direct bearing they may be considered as introductory to the courses of technology, which belong to higher instruction.

The courses of natural history are among those which excite the greatest interest in the mind of a child, and which may be made most useful in developing the intelligence, strengthening the observation and memory, and conveying religious impressions appropriate to the age. Illustrated by pictures they are very attractive; but when the means of acquiring specimens are within the power of the school, the courses are rendered much more interesting. In the examination of plants and stones, they may be made subservient, also, to the purposes of air and exercise. It is of course, understood that there is no attempt to teach the subjects as sciences, and especially for their own sake. They are mere introductory exercises to such studies, to which the tastes of pupils may perhaps lead them at a later period of instruction. The importance of forming museums of these objects is beginning now to be fully appreciated in the best schools.

Vocal music is not used solely for cultivating the ear or taste, but for producing its appropriate moral effects from the character of the songs, and as an important auxiliary to order and discipline, substituting harmony for noise during changes of position, and promoting regularity.

Moral and Physical Training. As already stated, the playground, or "uncovered school-room," is considered the place in which moral training is to be accomplished, where the principles taught in the school may be carried into practice so as to become habits. Accordingly, the play ground is not merely fitted up with the means of exercise, but it is planted, in part, with flowers and fruit, accessible to all, but which are to be enjoyed under the injunction, "smell, see, but touch not." It has been, and is, in part, to this day, the reproach of England and the United States, that public property is always injured; that flowers cannot bloom, nor fruit ripen, unless when enclosed; and in France, which is considered as offering an exception to this barbarous practice, I fear that the result is produced rather by the certainty of detection and punishment, than from the influence of a higher motive. Education is the true source of relief from this reproach; if the child be trained to respect what belongs to the public, the man will never injure it. Such views have been decried as visionary, and the idea that a child could be so trained, has been scouted. But facts prove that the visionary persons were only a little in advance of the times, and their training system has succeeded, and its principles will finally be so generally adopted, that to doubt them will be as remarkable as the idea itself originally appeared. In this particular school, upwards of one hundred and eighty scholars, from the manufacturing classes of Glasgow, have been in the habit of using the playground for more than an hour and a quarter every day for two years and a half, without damage to the flowers or fruits which it contains. Great attention is paid to neatness in the playground, that the habits inculcated in the school may be carried out here. It affords, also, opportunities of exemplifying lessons on cruelty to animals, on truth, justice, kindness, and other virtues. The means of healthy exercise is given by the more simple kinds of gymnastics.

As a vent for the animal spirits of a child, the playground is an important auxiliary to the school. A quarter of an hour spent there between the lessons leads not only to health, but to greater quiet on the return of the pupil to the room. Supplementary to it are simultaneous movements, executed by the class by express direction of the master. The subdued quiet produced by a rigid discipline may be a necessary evil in large schools, but should still be considered as an evil, and means taken to counteract its effects by exercise from time to time in and out of the class-room. Hence the mechanical motions considered by some as so ludicrous in the Lancasterian system are founded on a proper regard to the principles of physical education.

It need scarcely be remarked that this system of training can no more be carried on without the master's presence in the playground, than without in the school room, and in this particular it coincides with the best examples of practice in the German schools.

Bache's Report.

THE NORMAL SEMINARY.

In the Normal seminary the time of the students or teachers under training is divided into three parts. 1st. Receiving instruction, from the masters of the seminary, in elementary branches on the Training System. 2nd. Observing the operations and listening to the lessons of the Model Schoolmasters and their scholars. 3rd. Actually working out the system with a class of children in the miniature schools, alternately under the superintendence of the head master of each

of the particular departments in which the student is for the time placed, commencing and also finishing in all cases with the Infant department as the most direct medium whereby to simplify the ideas. The students are examined, and subjected to a course of public and private criticisms conducted by the Secretary acting as chairman. At the more public criticisms, four students give each a lesson on the principles and practice of the system. One of these is a Bible lesson; the other three are secular and elementary, and are given to the children, seated in the gallery, in the presence of the whole students, alternately in the Infant and Juvenile departments. A limited period is allowed to each exercise. The four students having finished their lessons, which occupy about an hour, they retire from the Model school to an adjoining room, where each in rotation is asked by the chairman to give his opinion, from notes previously taken. After the criticisms the chairman gives the result of his observations, and notices any criticisms that appear to him wrong or imperfect, following these up by an analysis of some point of the system suggested by the particular exhibitions. Nothing is expected to escape the critical eye of the lookers on, whether as regards the matter or the manner of the lesson.

The private Bible Training lessons are conducted without the school children, each student, in rotation, giving a lesson to the rest as before. It is the chairman's duty to see that the picture or subject of the lesson be properly drawn, and that, while all the relations and associations are attended to, no digressions be made which may detract from the distinct and straight-forward course of the subject. These and other exercises of the students, as well as the daily exercises of the public Model schools, are opened and closed with prayer.

In addition to the Model schools, there are 17 Miniature schools and class-rooms of various sizes, for the practical working of the students; some of these are fitted up like the Model schools, and to which a separate Play or Training-ground is attached.

The female students also have a separate Play or Training-ground for their classes.

The total number trained since the commencement of the institution is 505. Through them the great principles and peculiarities of the system are extending far and wide, both at home and abroad. It has been introduced into the Home and Colonial Infant School society by its head master, who was trained in this seminary; into Australia by seventeen trainers from the seminary; into the West Indies by twenty-one; into the High school of Glasgow, in the Junior class, by a gentleman trained in the seminary; into British America by several male and female trainers lately sent out from this institution; into a great number of town and country parishes in England and Scotland, and in several cases into Ireland. A most important point in the progress of the Training system has been attained by its introduction into the Poor Law unions of England by several of the Poor Law commissioners, but particularly by Dr. Kay at Norwood, who has stood foremost in this philanthropic work. Lately this society has furnished a trainer to Parkhurst Reformatory prison, Isle of Wight, for juvenile offenders; and this has led to an order for two trainers for a similar institution in Scotland. The National School society of England has made repeated movements in our direction, both privately and officially, with a view to introduce some portion of the Training system into their extended sphere of usefulness; and the equally celebrated British and Foreign School society is in process of erecting a Normal seminary, in which, as far as is consistent with its principles, the Training system is to be introduced; and with this view galleries, playgrounds, &c., are being provided. The Society has had communication with the Synod of Ulster, to extend the benefits of the institution to our sister island. The Wesleyan Methodists in some parts of England and Ireland are also adopting the system, and have availed themselves of this seminary for the training of schoolmasters. Several missionary societies have sent their foreign missionaries to acquire the system of Bible training.—*Fifth Rep. of G. E. S. 1839.*

EDINBURGH SCHOOL OF ARTS.

During the past year 451 students have attended the School of Arts; of whom 291 took out tickets for the winter course of study, 70 for the drawing classes, and 90 for that of teaching the art of ornamental modelling. The business of the winter course of study has been conducted with a steady adherence to the plan of instruction agreed upon by the directors. The mathematical classes have been distinguished, during the session, by a very regular attendance, and highly creditable proficiency in the solutions of the various exercises prescribed; the subjects taught in the senior class were the fourth book of geometry in the text-book, equations, the use of logarithms, plane trigonometry, and practical mathematics. Fifty-six have enrolled for this class; of these, 14 came forward as desirous to be examined, and to qualify for the certificate. It is very pleasing to the directors to be able to state, that, during the past and immediately preceding sessions, the numbers who have attended the

senior or more advanced class of mathematics, have been three times as numerous as on any former occasion; and they regard this as the most convincing proof that the great mass of the students do not resort to the school either for amusement or the acquisition of superficial attainments, but to obtain possession of sound practical information.

In the natural philosophy class, Mr. Lees, the lecturer, states, that, during the session, a great variety of exercises were prescribed to the students, their answers to which were in general not only accurate, but given with a precision and intelligence that were truly gratifying. The students of this class were instructed in the following branches of science. 1. Properties of matter, illustrated by appropriate experiments, and particularly by reference to the familiar incidents and occurrences of every day life. 2. The theory of statics, treating of the general equilibrium of bodies; centre of gravity. 3. Mechanics, embracing the elements of machinery, with various modifications and combinations. 4. Dynamics, treating of the motion of solids. 5. Strength and strain of material; bridge-arches. 6. Hydrostatics, including the general principles of hydrostatic equilibrium; pressure downward; lateral pressure; pressure on embankments; centre of pressure; hydrostatic press; specific gravity of solids and fluids; strength of spiritous liquors; flotation; centre of buoyancy; meta-centre. The highly interesting and useful branch of mechanical science, flotation,—a subject at all times necessary in connexion with a very important branch of the useful arts, ship-building,—was introduced last year, and was illustrated by a series of very ingeniously constructed models, made under his immediate inspection. 7. Pneumatics, treating of the phenomena of air, pumps, syphons, fire-engines, barometers. 8. An account of Robbins's experiments on gunnery. 9. Steam-engine; latent and sensible heat of steam; history of the steam-engine; mode of determining the power of an engine; construction of the most approved form of the locomotive engine, &c.

In chemistry, Dr. Reid is the lecturer; who not only performed experiments himself before his pupils, but enabled the students to perform them themselves; several of them, he says, performed nearly 200.

The directors have now to inform the subscribers, that the classes for architectural, mechanical, and ornamental scroll-drawing continue to be eagerly sought after by the students. One class has already been taught this summer, and another is now in progress, each consisting of 30 pupils; and a great many applications for admission were made above the number which it is possible to do justice to in one session. The directors conceive that during this last session they have made a most valuable addition to the instruction afforded by the School of Arts, in the formation of a class for teaching the art of ornamental modelling. It is not the object of the directors, in the formation of this class, to open a nursery for artists; but to teach those engaged in all trades where ornament is in the least concerned, such as silver chasers, jewellers, plasterers, glass-cutters, brass founders, smiths, die-sinkers, and a variety of others, to form their ideas of design on the most approved models of ancient and modern excellence; to enable them, instead of servilely imitating existing patterns with a vague uncertainty and want of acquaintance with the laws regulating art, to classify their labors; and, by accustoming their minds to contemplate and imitate acknowledged excellence, gradually to lead the way to that creative skill in the execution of their designs, which will eventually open up a new era in such walks of art, and remove the imputation under which this country at present lies when compared with her Continental neighbors.—*Fifth Report Glasgow Educational Society, 1839.*

State of Education among Children employed in Factories.—Convinced, from a variety of observations, that a much smaller number of persons are educated than is usually imagined, even taking the simple power of reading as the standard, a practical inquiry was lately made into one of the public factories of this city, in which are employed about 600 men, women and children. The boys and girls, to the number of 198, chiefly of the ages of eleven to thirteen years, were separately required to read a few verses of a chapter from the New Testament; and the following is the sad result:

Twenty-five could read well. Fifty-seven imperfectly; but not so as to know much of what they read. Forty-nine had been at school, but could not read. The remainder, sixty-seven, had never been at school or taught to read.

Thus, 116 out of 198 are unable to read. Of these, nineteen could write; some, however, only large text. Not above three or four of the twenty-five who could read well, could form any distinct impression of the meaning of what they did read.

This we conceive is the only mode of ascertaining the actual amount of education. No statistics on this point from the testimony of parents or children, can ascertain the real truth without putting their powers of reading and understanding to the proof. The answer of a large proportion of these totally uneducated children in the first instance was, "I can read."

IRELAND.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

Among the earliest legislative efforts to promote education in Ireland, which have left traces not yet wholly obliterated, was the enactment of a law, during the reign of Henry the Eighth, which enjoined upon every parochial clergyman the maintenance of a school within the limits of his benefice. The principal object of this law was to encourage the introduction of the English language among the natives of Ireland. Whether from the indisposition of the Irish to avail themselves of the opportunities offered by this act, or from its not having been adequately enforced, it seems to have conducted but little to the instruction of the people.

The intervention of the State in support of education was, during nearly a century, applied with singular ardour and perseverance, to the support of what have been called the Protestant Charter Schools, incorporated in the year 1733. Enormous sums were lavished by Parliament upon the Charter Schools; not less than 723,304*l.* was granted to them between 1800 and 1829. The whole number of children apprenticed during ninety years, ending in 1825, amounted only to 12,745. The society now maintains five boarding schools, in which 287 children are lodged, dieted, clothed, and educated; and five day-schools, in which 249 children are educated. Its annual income is 7361*l.* which is derived exclusively from endowment.

The Society for Discountenancing Vice also shared to a considerable extent the liberality of Parliament, having received 101,991*l.* between the year 1800 and the year 1827, when the grant was withdrawn. In 1826, there were in connexion with this association, 226 schools, giving education to 12,769 scholars. The society is at present upheld chiefly by the exertions of the Protestant clergy. Its funds are now derived wholly from subscriptions, which amounted, in the year 1838, to 1008*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.*

The Kildare-place Society was established in 1814; and its fundamental principle being that no peculiar or catechetical religious instruction should be given under its sanction, it at first received the support of persons of all denominations. Differences, however, soon arose with respect to the perusal of the Scriptures, in consequence of its being also made an indispensable condition of aid to any school in connexion with the society that the whole Bible should be read, without note or comment. This principle is at variance with the views of the Roman Catholic Church, which does not permit the use of the Scriptures at large as a school book, unless accompanied with explanations by the clergy.

The aid given by Parliament to this association was very considerable, amounting for several years to 25,000*l.* per annum. These grants ceased in 1837, when the society was superseded, as a means of affording encouragement to education on the part of the State, by the present Board of National Education. According to tables published by the society, it appears that there were, in 1831, 1621 schools in connexion with it, affording instruction to 137,639 scholars; that 1908 male teachers, and 482 female teachers, had been trained; 1,464,817 cheap books issued, and 1131 lending libraries had been formed by the society. It is now wholly dependent upon its own private funds, and upon voluntary subscriptions. There are in connexion with it about 1091 schools, which are estimated to contain about 81,750 scholars. Its receipts amount annually to between 4000*l.* and 5000*l.*

The members of this Board* have been, the Duke of Leinster, the Protestant Archbishop of Dublin, Dr. Sadlier, (three Protestants); the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Dublin, the Right Hon. A. R. Blake, Chief Remembrancer, (both Catholics); Mr. Holmes, an Arian; and the Rev. Mr. Carlisle, a Presbyterian minister, and the only member of the Board who has received a salary. The fundamental principle upon which the Board has hitherto governed its conduct has been, that united education shall alone be encouraged; that the literary instruction of children of all persuasions shall be given in common, but that their catechetical religious instruction shall be received separately. With a view to unite the children as much as possible, even in a religious instruction, a small volume of extracts from the Scripture has been compiled, in a new version, under the sanction of the Archbishops of the two churches; and these extracts are very generally read in the schools, although their perusal is not compulsory. At least one day in each week is allotted to the religious instruction of the children by their own pastors and religious teachers; and by a recent regulation, the Scriptures at large, or other works of a religious character, may be read on other days at stated hours, but the children are permitted to absent themselves, if their parents so desire. The following are the principal

* There has been a recent change in the composition of the Board. Mr. Carlisle has ceased to be a member, and Mr. Patrick Bellew (a Catholic) Mr. Henry and Sergeant Greene (Protestants) have been associated with the former members of the Board.

conditions upon which assistance has been granted to schools; viz., that when aid is sought for building, at least one-third of the expense shall be locally contributed, and that the site of the school house shall be vested in trustees approved by the Board; that provision shall be made, by local subscription, towards a permanent salary for the teacher, for the repair of the school house, and for the purchase of school requisites; and lastly, that the school shall be conducted in conformity to the regulations of the Board, and be, in all respects, subject to its control. They do not, however, insist upon appointing the teachers, but reserve to themselves the power of suspending or removing them. The Board have prepared, for the use of schools, a series of excellent books and treatises, from many of which even adults would derive much useful information. These books are supplied at half-price to the national schools; and to the public they are also sold at a price which is much too high, and which ought to be reduced to the lowest possible amount, with a view to encourage their gratuitous distribution by benevolent individuals. At the Central Institution in Dublin, there is a model school; attached to which there is also an infant school, and a training establishment for teachers. There are twenty-five inspectors, exclusive of the Superintendent of the Central School. The amount granted by the Board, from its establishment in 1831, to 15th December 1837, in aid of schools, not including the general expenses of the Board, or the cost of the Central School, was apportioned as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
For building,	26,298	8	3½
Fitting up,	9,211	8	7½
Salaries,	54,075	18	11½
Books and school requisites,	13,666	6	1
Total,	£103,252	1	11½

Upon the 25th of March, 1838, there were 1,384 school in operation under the Board, with 1,510 teachers, male and female. The average number of scholars on the rolls of these schools at the same period amounted, in the aggregate, to 169,548. There are no accurate returns of the relative number of Catholic and Protestant children at these schools; but the following summary, prepared for the Parliamentary Committee of 1837, by the officers of the Board, is supposed to indicate very fairly the relative proportion upon the whole number of scholars, though the returns do not comprise all the schools:—

	Protestants.	Roman Catholics.
Ulster,	14,628	22,455
Munster,	150	19,009
Leinster,	578	34,945
Connaught,	277	14,186
	15,633	90,595

It is proposed hereafter greatly to extend the operations of the Board, in every department of its functions, if Parliament should provide the necessary funds. In the second report of the Board, a general view is exhibited of the plan of education contemplated; and a calculation is given, by which it appears that an income of at least 210,000*l.* per annum would be necessary adequately to meet the wants of the country in regard of education. The last annual grant amounted to no more than 50,000*l.*

We now proceed to notice the exertions made in support of education by several societies not yet mentioned, which do not derive aid from Parliament.

The London Hibernian Society is supported wholly by voluntary subscriptions. Its income for the year 1837, amounted to 9991*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.* There were in connexion with it 1143 day-schools educating 85,673, scholars, and 1279 Sunday and adult schools, educating 53,418 scholars. The teachers of 813 day-schools were paid according to the number and progress of the children, as ascertained by the inspectors of the society. The attendance of scholars at the several inspections was 58,201. The fundamental principle of the society is, that the Bible at large shall be taught in the schools; and also that through the agency of Scripture readers it shall be read and disseminated throughout the country. The attendance of Roman Catholic children on the day-schools, is stated to have amounted in 1837 to 31,285; but the Catholic clergy give every opposition in their power to the proceedings of the society, as tending to proselytism, and as inconsistent with the views of their church.

The Sunday School Society is also supported by voluntary contributions. Its receipts during the year 1837, amounted to 3057*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; of which about 600*l.* were derived from the sale of Bibles and school books, which it distributes largely throughout the country. The number of schools in connexion with the society on the 1st of January, 1838, is stated to have been 2975, in which instruction was given to 214,164 scholars, by 20,885 gratuitous teachers. As the

instruction given is of a Protestant character, the Catholic clergy do not encourage or sanction these schools.

The Irish Society for promoting the education of the native Irish through the medium of their own language, is another association which depends exclusively upon voluntary subscriptions. Its income for the year ending the 17th March, 1838, was 5157*l.* 15*s.* 2*d.* There were 770 schools in connexion with it, giving education in the Irish tongue to 18,843 scholars, of whom 14,776 were adults. Scriptural education is the paramount object for which the society was founded, and it is to this object that its labors are chiefly directed.

In connexion with the Irish branch of the Baptist Society, there were, in 1838, forty-one schools, containing about 3000 scholars.

There exists in Ireland a fraternity connected with the Catholic Church, who are entirely devoted to education. They are called Brothers of the Christian doctrine. In the Catholic Directory for 1838, the number of children taught by persons in immediate connexion with the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland, is stated to be 14,870. Of these schools a considerable proportion are in receipt of aid from the National Board. By a return made to the Parliamentary Committee of 1837, it appears that at that time twenty-six national schools were taught by nuns, and eighteen by monks.

We may here notice, in connexion with Elementary Education, a very ample endowment which exists in Ireland, arising out of a bequest by Erasmus Smith. The estates placed under the administration of the governors of this charity are stated to comprise 7593 acres, giving an annual rental of 7584*l.* These funds are applied to the encouragement of education of every description. A considerable number of elementary schools for the poorer classes are maintained; several academical seminaries have been partially endowed; and in Trinity College, at Dublin, three professorships, viz., mathematics, modern history, and Oriental languages, have been founded by the aid of this charity.

The education afforded by the societies and institutions comprised in the foregoing enumeration is for the most part given gratuitously. Where a school fee is required, in the case of schools not deriving aid from any society, it ranges from one shilling and sixpence per quarter, to half-a-crown. For instruction in the higher branches of elementary knowledge it seldom exceeds seven shillings per quarter. The education given in the ordinary elementary schools of Ireland is limited to reading, writing, and arithmetic; but in those of a somewhat higher description, a slight knowledge of geography, history, mensuration, geometry, and algebra, is not unfrequently communicated. The monitorial system of teaching has been adopted by the National Board, and by the various educational societies, and has in other schools been brought into very general operation. The books used in schools which are under the patronage of the societies are of a very excellent description, and though works of an objectionable kind are sometimes to be found in the hedge schools, yet a great improvement has taken place in this respect since the time when the earlier parliamentary commissioners made inquiries into the state of education in Ireland. The general character of the teachers has also been much improved, but it is still very far from having reached that standard which ought to be attained by those who are charged with the care of youth. In the case of those masters who are dependent upon the different societies, or upon benevolent individuals, the fear of losing their situations, in case of misconduct, must operate as a restraint; but where such influences do not exist, the check of public opinion, and the fear of being deserted by their scholars, do not appear to act as motives sufficiently strong to prevent occasional irregularities of conduct. The emoluments of those who devote themselves to the education of the poorer classes in Ireland are so inconsiderable—seldom reaching twenty pounds per annum—that there is not sufficient inducement to tempt persons of character and attainments to apply themselves to a pursuit which does not hold out the recompense which it deserves, either in regard of public esteem or of pecuniary remuneration. With reference to industrial training as a part of education, we regret that scarcely any attempt has yet been made to unite with literary instruction any knowledge of the industrial arts, or the practice of any manual occupations. In all well-regulated female schools, however, needle-work, knitting, straw-plait, &c., form a part of the occupation of the children. Of the general character of the moral training which prevails in the schools of Ireland, it is difficult to convey a correct impression.

We shall now exhibit the general summary of the state of education in 1835, as ascertained by the Commissioners of Public Instruction.

Number of daily schools,	9,657
Number of daily schools supported wholly by payments from the children,	5,653
Number of daily schools supported wholly or in part, by endowment or subscription,	4,004

Number of schools in connexion with, or receiving support from	The National Board,	892
	Association for discountenancing vice,	203
	Erasmus Smith's Fund,	115
	Kildaire place Society, London Hibernian Society,	235
Number of daily schools of which the books containing lists of the children were produced,		8,886
Number of children on the books of these schools,	Males,	353,809
	Females,	223,900
	Sex not specified,	5,700
Total,		583,413
Number of schools of which no lists were produced,		771
Computed number of children under daily instruction in such schools,		50,886
Computed total number of children under daily instruction,		633,946
Total population in 1834,		7,954,100

From the foregoing table it appears that not more than about eighth per cent. of the population of Ireland are in attendance upon school; whereas, if education were sufficiently prized, from twenty to twenty-five per cent. of the population would be in course of instruction.

The number of children between the ages of five and twelve years is rather more than 18 per cent.

The present population of Ireland probably amounts to 8,500,000. Upon this number eighteen per cent. would give 1,500,000 children to be educated; of whom 1,200,000, or, at the very lowest computation, 1,000,000 belong to those classes for the education of whose children it is the especial duty of the State to afford peculiar facilities. In this view of the subject we have not taken into account the children between three years old and five years, although in our opinion infant schools ought to be provided for this portion of the national offspring. In this paper we have not attempted any separate notice of the infant schools at present existing in Ireland, because they are not sufficiently numerous to obtain a place in our general classification. To provide a suitable education for one million of children, would probably cost above 300,000*l.* per annum; and herein lies one of the main difficulties, which terrifies our statesmen. The same minister who cheerfully asks from Parliament above a million and a half sterling every year to provide a military and police force for the purpose of coercing the people of Ireland to the observance of order, would shrink from the duty of proposing an annual grant of 200,000*l.* to instruct the rising generation in their duties as subjects and citizens. Those, however, who demand education for the people as a right, or solicit it as the greatest of moral blessings, do not come before Parliament as mendicants. They only ask of the legislature to declare that schools open to children of all persuasions shall henceforth be considered at least as essential an adjunct to our social organization as a road, a bridge, or a gaol; and that an adequate machinery shall be by law provided for their erection, support and administration. It would lead us into too much prolixity if we were to attempt to elucidate all the details appertaining to a system founded upon such a basis. They would be framed with a view to do no violence to the conscience of any one; to provide for the proper selection and training of the teachers; to secure a constant and vigilant inspection and superintendence; to ensure a supply of books of the best quality, as well as of other useful accessories to education; to teach the rudiments of the industrial arts; in fine, to send forth into the world a succession of young persons trained in the knowledge and exercise of their moral and religious duties, and competent by mental and physical qualification to apply their industry to the best advantage both for themselves and for their country.

AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL AT TEMPLEMOYLE.

The seminary derives its origin from the North-West of Ireland Society, many of whose members had individually experienced the great difficulty and expense that attended all their attempts to improve their property, and the frequent failures that arose from their tenants not being capable, from their education, to appreciate or imitate them. To remedy these evils, and obtain the desired advantages, the Agricultural School at Templemoyle was founded in the year 1827, in connexion with, and strongly supported by, the North-West of Ireland Society: the plan of M. Fellenberg, at Hofwyl, in Switzerland, was taken in some degree as a model.

The original plan embraced two schools; one comprising every branch of education, and requiring a considerable payment from the pupils; the other embracing every useful attainment, and adapted to the more limited means of the majority. It was hoped that the industrial school might have its means of support increased by the profit from the principal establishment, and that the general lectures of the professors of the head school would have afforded a valuable

and gratuitous source of improvement to the agricultural pupils; but a short and very expensive trial convinced the subscribers that neither their funds nor existing circumstances would enable them to prosecute the whole scheme; and they then abandoned the more expensive school, and devoted their whole attention to the other. A large and commodious house and offices were built at an expense exceeding 2,400*l.*; 1,200*l.* of which the Grocers' Company, their liberal landlords, contributed. The house contains a school room 40 feet long, 21½ wide, 15 feet high; four dormitories,—No. 1, 40 feet long, 21½ wide, 13 feet high; No. 2, 40 feet long, 21½ wide, 13 feet high; No. 3, 35 feet long, 16 wide, and 13 feet high; No. 4, 23 feet long, 21½ wide, and 15 high. The dormitories contain 76 beds, each pupil having a separate one; the dining room is 45 feet long, 15½ wide, and 15 feet high; besides these, there are rooms for the different masters, matrons, servants, and committee; kitchen, store room, and other requisite offices. The out-door buildings consist of two large rooms for pupils' boxes, washing room, dairy, stables, harness room, tool house, cow houses, feeding houses, piggeries, barn; which, together with the farming utensils, are kept with the greatest attention to neatness.

To qualify a pupil for admission it originally required a nomination from one of the 25*l.* subscribers; but the right of nomination has been extended by the Committee to annual subscribers, who pay 2*l.* for the first pupil, and 1*l.* for each additional.

The in-door establishment consists of a head and second master, who instructs the pupils in spelling, reading, grammar, writing, arithmetic, geography, book-keeping as applicable not only to agricultural but commercial accounts, Euclid's Elements, algebra, trigonometry, with its application to heights and distances, and land-surveying, together with the use of the water level, theodolite and chain; and the proficiency displayed by the pupils at the different yearly examinations, many of them in every one of the different branches of education enumerated, has been such as to surprise the talented persons who, on these occasions, have kindly acted as examiners, and to afford the best proof of the judicious selection that has been made of the master.

Of the pupils, one half are at their studies in the house, while the others are pursuing their agricultural studies out of doors; this is the arrangement for the morning. In the afternoon they change, so that the in-door and out-of-door education proceed *paripassu*. The arrangement of these hours, &c. will be seen in the Appendix.

The domestic management of the house is confided to a highly respectable matron, who superintends the cooking, dairy, the house and scholars' linen, and controls the female servants.

The agricultural branch of the seminary is entrusted to a skilful and talented young man, a native of Scotland, and whose ability would be better ascertained during a walk round the farm than described by the pen; he has under him a gardener and a ploughman.

The farm consists of 135 Cunningham, or 169 statute acres, with a north-eastern aspect, rising gradually from the house, which is 180 feet above the level of the sea, till it attains the height of 313 feet; the soil is mostly a thin retentive clay, on a micaceous sub-soil, which, together with the height and aspect, will account for the small produce when compared with the skill and labor expended on it. These circumstances occasion the patrons of this establishment a much greater expense than if the soil had been more grateful in its returns; but the disadvantage is lessened, when it is considered that it presents a much greater field for the instruction of the pupils, who are taught increased vigilance in watching the seasons for ploughing, sowing and reaping, rendered particularly precarious by the above circumstances. The school might have been situated where draining could only have been taught in its theory; here every field is, and, we may say, always will be, a practical lesson, as pecuniary means are the only limits to draining such retentive sub-soils.

Every description of draining is here practised during the period of the year at which it is practicable; and furrow draining, which is carried to as considerable an extent as our means and time have permitted, already shows its beneficial influences on the crops that have succeeded it.

The whole farm is labored by the scholars in the alternate hours of their school education; and many of the senior lads, during their hours of recreation, have surveyed and mapped not only the Templemoyle Farm, but some of the neighboring ones, in a manner that would do credit to a professional surveyor.

Within the last year a nursery of forest trees has been made; the spring was particularly unfavorable for planting, but, with the care and attention that was employed, few of the trees failed. It will prove an additional source of instruction to the pupils, and we trust will not be without its profit.

The garden, of which the nursery is an enlargement, has, within the same period been rendered more ornamental; and by means of it, and the system and neatness required about the other portions of the establishment, it is hoped that what is now taught as a lesson,

may hereafter be adopted from principle, and from the persuasion that in that, as in every thing else, neatness is economy.

An experienced veterinary surgeon, who had been lecturing in the adjacent towns of Derry, Newtown-Limavady, and Coleraine, and had given great satisfaction, was engaged to give a course of lectures comprehending the treatment of the horse, both as to his food and medicine, under the different uses to which he is applied, and the most approved method of shoeing.

The system of cropping adopted on the farm is the four and five shift rotation; 36 Cunningham, or 45 statute acres, being under the four shift, and 94 Cunningham, or nearly 118 statute acres, under the five shift course. The situation and division of the fields cause the disparity in the number of acres in each rotation; not that a prejudice existed towards the one rather than the other, but it was thought necessary that the pupils should see each in operation. The five shift consists of, 1st year, oats after ley; 2d, turnips potatoes, vetches, beans, or flax, with manure; 3d, wheat, barley, or oats, sown with clover and grasses; 4th, clover for soiling, or hay; 5th, pasture. The four crop rotation is the same, without the 5th or pasture year.

We would request all persons disposed to send pupils, to ascertain, by a personal examination of them, whether they are likely to be benefited by their fitness at the time of entrance. The pupil should be at least fourteen, able to read and write, and disposed to pay that obedience which the rules require, and which his own discretion might know was necessary. In order also to do justice to the Seminary and themselves, they should remain there at least two years; and, should they not have had any previous acquaintance with agricultural pursuits, a longer time would be absolutely necessary.

Twenty-one counties having sent scholars, may justify its being termed a National Establishment, and afford another proof of the disinterestedness of its founders and supporters. The improvement of their own properties, or even the surrounding country, was not the limits they assigned to this institution. They hail, with pleasure, the satisfactory intelligence that its beneficial effects are already felt in some of the remotest parts of their country; and they trust that ere long they may see similar establishments rising in every province of Ireland. Should their best and most sanguine wishes, in that way be realized, they will then have obtained the highest and only reward to which they have ever aspired,—that the agricultural seminary at Templemoyle has been the parent of establishments productive of prosperity and happiness to their native country.—*Annual Report of Society 1839.*

SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATION.

In this class may be placed scientific and literary associations, mechanics' institutions, public libraries, museums, botanic gardens, galleries of paintings, schools of art, &c. Institutions of this class are chiefly confined to the metropolis; and may be stated, in general terms, as consisting of several associations connected with the study and pursuit of the profession of law and medicine; a geological and a zoological society; a society of civil engineers; several musical societies; and a society for promoting the fine arts in Dublin; a similar society in Cork; horticultural and agricultural societies in Dublin and in the provinces; a few scientific and literary associations and mechanics' institutions in some of the principal towns. Upon the whole, Ireland is sadly deficient in these aids to education. Neither in number nor efficiency can the very few institutions of this nature which exist, be said to indicate a just appreciation of the enjoyments and advantages of literature, science, and the arts. We add a notice of the

DUBLIN SOCIETY.

The Dublin Society was founded above a century since; and was much encouraged, and most liberally supported, by the parliament of Ireland. An enumeration of the objects which it embraces, will show how comprehensive is the range of useful action which it assumes to itself. It possesses a museum, a library, and a botanic garden, which are open to the public. It maintains four professors, who give gratuitous lectures, which are numerously attended by the public, in chemistry, natural philosophy, botany, mineralogy, and geology. The botanic garden, which is one of the finest in Europe, is a practical school for young men seeking instruction in gardening. There are also four schools of art, in which several most distinguished artists have received the rudiments of their education. They are as follows:—A figure school, a school for landscape and ornamental drawing, a school of architecture, and a school for modelling in clay. Exhibitions of Irish manufactures and agricultural implements are also held once every year under the auspices of the society. Evening meetings frequently take place, for conversation and mutual instruction in regard to objects connected with literature, science, and the arts. About nine hundred members have been admitted since the Union, upon payment of a sum which has

varied from twenty guineas to fifty guineas each. The society having given upon some occasions indications of party spirit, it has not hitherto fully possessed the confidence of the Roman Catholic portion of the community; but there is every reason to hope that such circumstances will never again occur. The annual parliamentary grant is 5300*l.* The Parliamentary Committee, which was appointed in 1836 to inquire into its management, recommended that it should be enabled, in some degree to supply the void which exists in Ireland with regard to instruction in the experimental sciences, by sending down to the small towns either its own professors, or other qualified persons, to give lectures in this department of science. The society has recently been enabled, by the government, to act upon this suggestion, and lectures upon chemistry, natural philosophy, and mechanics have been given by the professors of the Society, in the towns of Galway, Partarlinton, and Wicklow.

The valuable paper from which the above information is taken, is from the pen of William S. O'Brien, Esq. M. P., and is contained in the *THIRD PUBLICATION OF THE CENTRAL SOCIETY OF EDUCATION*. It gives a very good summary of the means and condition of elementary, academical, collegiate, professional, and supplementary education in Ireland. As far as we can judge, the means of academical or secondary education, are more equally distributed, and are capable of greater immediate improvement, than either of the other classes. By being placed under the control of the National Board, in connection with the elementary schools, these institutions would constitute parts of a regular system, and could be made to furnish a highly useful education to all classes of the community. Great expectations are entertained from the continued action of the National Board. The Normal School which has been recently completed at Dublin, will afford to the future teacher the opportunities of learning the principles and practices of his future calling, and will lead to the improvement of the quality and quantity of instruction communicated in the national schools. The Board has been instrumental in providing a supply of a uniform set of text books, which will do away with one of the most serious evils of public schools, when there is no efficient regulation in this respect. We extract the conclusion of Hon. Mr. O'Brien's article.

"We have now completed this review of the educational institutions of Ireland; and we deduce from the facts before us the conclusion, that the provision heretofore made for the instruction of the people either by the voluntary efforts of individuals, or by the fostering aid of the State, is wholly inadequate; that the endowments founded by private or by royal munificence have, through a defective administration, failed to produce benefits commensurate with the means of usefulness which they possess; that the instruction at present afforded to the different classes of society is seldom the most suitable that could be given in reference to the circumstances of the individuals receiving it; and that its quality requires to be improved, and its range to be enlarged. If these results cannot be fairly deduced from the facts which are before us, we are at liberty to stand still; but if neither the facts can be denied, nor the conclusion be controverted, then we are entitled to call upon the Legislature, upon the Government, and upon the people to begird themselves strenuously to the noblest task that can occupy the human energies—that of enlightening the minds, refining the tastes, and improving the habits of a nation; and, above all, of teaching them the practical exercise of that religion which was announced by its divine herald as the harbinger of peace on earth and good will to man."

ENGLAND.

SCHOOLS OF INDUSTRY.

SCHOOL OF INDUSTRY FOR THE TRAINING OF PAUPER CHILDREN AT NORWOOD.

Extracts from a Report of James Phillips Kay, M. D., Assistant Poor Law Commissioner, on the training of pauper children: made to the Poor Law Commissioners, May, 1839.

The establishment which conveys the most complete example of what has sought to be obtained, is the school of industry under the management of Mr. Aubin, at Norwood.

Your experience in the religious and moral training of large establishments of children, led you to prefer a modification of the simultaneous method of instruction, combined with what is technically termed the synthetical, as contrasted with the unmodified plan of mutual instruction and analytical teaching prevalent in this country. No agency existed in England by which the simultaneous method could be communicated to teachers. The expectation of personally communicating the knowledge of such a method (by such casual visits to the schools as your assistants could make,) could not be seriously entertained; and it therefore appeared at an early period expedient that an examination of those schools in which this method was practised should occur, with a view to determine from what source a supply of teachers, even partially acquainted with it, could be obtained.

The simultaneous method was believed to be chiefly practised in Scotland.

The teachers procured from the Normal School at Glasgow, have invariably been distinguished by their sense of the moral and religious responsibilities of their office, and by their correct moral conduct.

To facilitate the adoption of the simultaneous method, the boys' school was divided into five classes, of from 40 to 50 children each; the girls' school into four classes, each containing 40, besides other classes employed in the workshops. In each class, the children are arranged in four grades of desks, each grade containing 10 or 11 children. Each grade rises four inches above the preceding, so that the last desk is a foot higher than the first. The desks are each 15 inches wide; and each desk, with the space for the form and passage behind it, occupies about three feet. The four grades, therefore, occupy twelve feet, and six feet, at least, ought to be left in the front of the desks for the teacher; but the limited extent of the rooms at Norwood, did not afford us more than four feet in any case. Each class is separated from those adjacent by curtains, which fall from the ceiling, and which are drawn up by ropes adjusted as in a Venetian blind. These curtains subdue the noise arising from the teaching of large numbers in the same room: they likewise prevent the distractions of the attention of the children by surrounding objects, and enable the teacher to concentrate the energies of the class on the matter of instruction he has to convey to them; but solid wooden partitions sliding into the adjacent walls are preferable to curtains when so prepared as to be moved with ease, and effectually to exclude sound. *Separate apartments, arranged on a plan facilitating inspection from a central room, afford, however, the best means of instructing classes of 50 on the simultaneous method.* The means at command, at Norwood, compelled the adoption of curtains of green baize, which have been found very useful.

Each school is also furnished with a gallery similar to those commonly used in infant schools, in which 100 children may be assembled for simultaneous instruction in matters requiring less technical proficiency than those which form the subjects of instruction in classes. The gallery is also employed for religious instruction, for serious moral admonition on any occurrence in the school, and also for instruction in singing.

For each class monitors have been selected, who are chiefly employed in superintending the mechanical daily routine; that is, in assisting the teacher in assembling the class in order, in procuring and preserving silence and attention, in distributing the books, slates, pens, &c., in superintending lessons in which moral training forms no element, such as writing and ciphering. From these monitors have already been selected those most distinguished by zeal, skill, attainments, and gentleness of disposition, who are to be apprenticed, and reared as teachers. The organization of each class will not be complete until it has at least one monitor and a pupil teacher; and when the pupil teachers have acquired considerable skill, and the arrangements for the instruction of the monitors are complete, it is believed that 100 children may, with such assistance, be instructed by one master, alternately, in two classes of 50, and in the gallery. Such an arrangement, however, supposes that one of these classes shall be employed in writing, ciphering, composition, or drawing, while the other is receiving instruction from the master in reading, geography, and other matters of general knowledge.

In a large school containing teachers, candidate teachers, pupil teachers, and monitors, and in which the simultaneous method is resorted to, the following internal organization is adopted, and will soon be in operation at Norwood, in conformity with your directions; but it is perhaps desirable to remark, that small schools require an organization totally different from the arrangement described, as desirable in the particular case selected. Each class contains 50 children, and is furnished with at least one pupil teacher and a monitor. Two classes of 50 children each have, besides their pupil teachers and monitors, one teacher and one candidate teacher attached to them; the teacher instructs each class alternately, or both classes together in the gallery; the candidate teacher listens to the instruction given in the gallery; or, when he has attained sufficient proficiency, occasionally assists the teacher in giving these lessons. The candidate teacher also instructs one of the classes at the desks alternately with the teacher, so that they are both always receiving instruction either from the teacher or candidate teacher. Candidate teachers are not intrusted with the instruction of the children until they have been some time in the school; and they are then first attached to those classes which require the smallest amount of skill, and the most slender attainments, and afterwards to those where greater proficiency is requisite.

The synthetical method supposes that the teacher leads the children from the known to the unknown by such gradual steps as to require no effort of analysis on their part, but to render the knowledge of general facts the consequence of an acquaintance with the elements from which they spring. When this method is employed in combination with the simultaneous, the acquisition of knowledge is invested with its natural attractions, and the efforts of the children second those of a teacher of a mild and persuasive character so earnestly, as to remove the necessity for the adoption of the too prevalent practice of coercion. The moral discipline of the school is thus dependent, in a great degree, on the method of instruction; and when it is proposed that religion shall mingle with the whole tissue of internal discipline, the regulation of that discipline, so as by paternal kindness and wisdom to inspire confidence and regard, becomes one of the most important objects of solicitude. To hope to rear the children in the practice of mutual forbearance and good will, and in respect and love of their instructor, while the teaching is such as to require the memory to be loaded with what is not understood, is vain; because the teacher, by such a method, strips knowledge of its attractions, and encounters the necessity of enforcing application by the fear of punishment and the hope of reward. Inferior motives being appealed to, the moral discipline of the school is reduced to a lower standard, and good conduct rather results from the vigilance of the superintendence, than from that right regulation of the motives to action, which removes the necessity for much vigilance on the part of the teacher. On the contrary, when the children are so taught that learning is among their chief pleasures, harmony subsists between them and their teacher, whose mind being generally in contact with theirs, becomes not merely the source of knowledge, but of right moral and religious sentiments and motives; so that, in the intercourse of the daily routine, they grow up around him as members of one family.

Under this method nothing is learned by rote, and the attention and attainments of the children are tested, not merely by requiring answers from individuals during a simultaneous lesson, and at its close, but by occasional interrogative lessons at the desks, in which the children are required to make written replies; and the lessons on objects especially are tested by requiring the children to write on their slates what they remember of the lesson, which, besides affording a proof of their attention and memory, is an excellent exercise in writing, spelling, grammar, and the art of composition. The first and second classes at Norwood already write out on the slate with ease and accuracy, the chief elements of the lessons which they have received in the gallery, and other classes are undergoing constant practice in the same art.

The matter of instruction is so selected as to bear a constant relation to the future social duties of the children. From the earliest period an effort is made to connect each acquisition with a sense of its practical utility. In the infant school the children are taught to recognize the characteristic differences of the letters by drawing and writing them, either before or at the same time as they learn their powers and names. They more easily distinguish the characteristic differences of these forms when they attempt to imitate them, which is a source of constant but calm amusement. When entrusted with a piece of chalk and slate for this purpose, they learn to draw straight and curved lines of various kinds, in order to enable them to recognize and imitate the characteristic features of the letters. While thus making the first step in linear drawing, they learn the Roman and the written alphabet, and have already begun to write. Writing and drawing may thus in a school be regarded only as modifications of the same art, and while the children are taught to imitate and combine letters with skill and rapidity, they may

easily be led to imitate the forms of simple objects, such as houses, implements, animals, &c. That most difficult step, the knowledge of the Roman and the written character, is thus changed from a matter of mere dogmatism, in which the memory alone is employed, to an exercise calling various other faculties into activity, and sustained by the sense of utility which the process inspires. In learning to combine letters into words, the children use a toy resembling those employed in some of the Dutch and Belgic schools, by which letters are formed into words suggested by the teacher. These words are chiefly the names of objects capable of illustration by a picture, which is presented at the same moment as the printed characters to the eye of the child. The analysis of the signs of sound being thus in the earliest stage connected with the visible representation of the object named, the children never have a sense of the combination being arbitrary and useless, but at once understand its convenience.

A similar process is followed in all the successive stages of instruction. The writing and drawing are in course of introduction by means of the infant school, to all the junior classes of the school for older children. The children are not allowed to read any combination of letters which are not real words, and are instructed in the meaning of every word, and exercised in attention to the sense of the sentences of which the words form a part. The lesson books are so selected as to afford useful information, and as the children advance in the school, they are entrusted with the books adapted to the state of their attainments.

As the children rise in classes in the school they receive lessons on objects, by which they are made familiar with the metals, earthenware, wood, and various animal substances used in industry and commerce; they are taught whence and how they are obtained; in what state; by what processes they are prepared for use in other branches of industry, and ultimately for purposes of domestic or social utility. They are made acquainted with the seats of various manufactures; the nature of the labor required in the various processes; the wages and condition of the artisans employed in such manufactures, and the causes of their comparative well being.

Ciphering and Mental arithmetic hold their due place in the matter of instruction, and the greater part of the hints respecting the method, matter, and means of the instruction contained in the Report on the Training of Pauper Children, published in your last Annual Report, have been practically realized.

The Scriptures are read daily in the school, and a period is set apart for special religious instruction.

The children are beginning to keep accounts of the results of their labor, as an exercise illustrating the utility of their knowledge of writing and ciphering, and accustoming them to the practical application of those arts. They will acquire further facility in keeping such accounts, by being practised by the teacher in writing and summing up accounts of the expenses of a laborer's household, and of the application of his wages under various circumstances, and in various situations.

The girls are accustomed to make inventories of clothes, to write out receipts for frugal cookery, to make out bills of articles sold from small shops, and to keep accounts of domestic expenditure. The attention of the oldest classes in the school is steadily directed to the dangers, advantages, duties and responsibilities of the station they are about to occupy; they are carefully warned against the causes of failure, and instructed how prudence and industry may best secure them from being overborne by the accidents of life.

Singing is already taught with considerable success. Divine service on the Sunday is thus conducted with much greater solemnity and propriety, and weariness and languor are constantly dispelled from the workshops and school by cheerful moral songs, which give an encouraging view of the duties and cares of a laborer's life.

One half only of the period assigned to instruction is devoted to the lessons in the school; the other half of this period is employed in the acquisition of skill in handicrafts in the workshops. At present, the children are engaged six hours daily, alternately in the workshops and in the school.

The moral training pervades every hour of the day, from the period when the children are marched from their bedrooms to the wash-house in the morning, to that when they march back to their bedrooms at night. By the constant presence of some teacher as a companion during the hours of recreation, they are taught to amuse themselves without mutual encroachment; they are trained in the practice of mutual forbearance and kindness; they are taught to respect property not their own, to avoid faults of language and manner, to treat their superiors with respectful confidence; they learn to show the affection they bear their teachers without fear of rebuke, to approach strangers with a simplicity of manner to which servility and audacity are alike foreign; they are trained in the practice of their religious duties, in a reverential observance of the Sunday, and in deference to the instructions of their authorized religious teachers. Propriety of demeanor in their bed-rooms and at meals, is a matter of special anxiety.

The girls are employed in the household duties, namely, in scouring the floors, making the beds, and waiting upon the teachers; in washing, ironing, and mangling the clothes of the establishment; in knitting, and in sewing and marking linen.

The instruction of the girls in household work will, it is hoped, in future be systematically conducted, so as to secure habits of neatness, order and skillful management. The care of young children it is intended shall not be regarded only as a casual duty, but as a source of important instruction. The management of the sick is to be so conducted, under the superintendence of careful nurses, as to become a prominent part of the education of the girls.

A kitchen has recently been prepared, in which the older girls are instructed in plain cooking.

The schools are provided with a library which, for the present, consists chiefly of the books published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and other similar publications. The books are eagerly perused by the most advanced children.

A small cabinet of natural objects has been provided to aid the teacher in giving object lessons.

The apparatus of the school is meagre, being limited to what is absolutely indispensable.

These improvements have been more or less in progress during the last eight months, but a large body of the children (400) were, to a recent period, instructed on the plan of the National School Society.

The effects of the industrial and moral training are stated by the teachers to be apparent in the improved habits of the children. As they are chiefly orphans, deserted, illegitimate or the offspring of persons undergoing punishment of crime, they are, in fact, children of the dregs of the pauper population of London, and have consequently been, for the most part, reared in scenes of misery, vice and villany. Their physical conformation and physiognomy betray that they have inherited from their parents physical and moral constitutions requiring the most vigorous and careful training to render them useful members of society. They arrive at the school in various stages of squalor and disease; some are the incurable victims of scrofula; others are constantly liable to a recurrence of its symptoms; almost all exhibit the consequences of the vicious habits, neglect, and misery of their parents. Visitors invariably remark the prevalence of a singular formation of their heads; that the boys have almost universally coarse features, and that the girls are almost all plain. These remarks are very just now; but eight months ago, these ugly features were seldom irradiated by a gleam of intellectual expression; and to the physical coarseness were added traces of suspicion, obstinacy and gloom.

The children now at least display in their features evidence of happiness; they have confidence in the kindness of all by whom they are surrounded; their days pass in a cheerful succession of instruction, recreation, work, and domestic and religious duties, in which it is not found necessary to employ coercion to ensure order. Punishment, in its ordinary sense, has been banished the school, and such slight distinctions as are necessary to mark the teacher's disapproval of what is wrong, are found efficacious.

Petty thieving, which was the daily and almost universal vice of the school, is at an end, excepting among boys recently introduced from such haunts of crime as Saffron-hill and St. Giles's. Nothing is now lost by any boy which is not soon found, and voluntarily restored to him through the medium of the teacher; whereas, any toy or piece of money was irrecoverable formerly, when once lost sight of.

Strangers are approached with confidence and respect; a rule of mutual forbearance and good will is established among the children; their conversation is correct and their demeanor more decent. Personal cleanliness has become a habit requiring little vigilance to secure its prevalence.

The habit of speaking the truth is constantly tested by the teachers, and it is believed that much progress has been made in establishing fidelity in this respect.

By persevering attention alone can higher moral results be secured, and the labors of the chaplain are now devoted with great assiduity to the religious improvement of the children.

The industrial training of the children has already had the effect of reducing the age at which they are received into service, and of rendering premiums and apprenticeship unnecessary; not however in consequence of their skill in a particular handicraft, but because the children have acquired industrious habits.

Fifth Report Poor Law Commissioners, 1839.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL AT EALING.

The objects of this school are to educate children destined for country pursuits, in a manner to make them better workmen, and more intelligent and happier men, than is at present the case. For this purpose it was conceived necessary that they should early acquire the habits of patient industry,—that they should be acquainted with the value of labor, and know the connexion between it and

property,—that they should have intelligence, skill, and an acquaintance with the objects by which they are surrounded,—that the higher sentiments—the social and moral part of their being—should obtain a full development. The habit of patient industry is endeavored to be given to them by requiring that they should labor for a portion of the day, viz. three hours; and this partly for the institution, partly for themselves in their own gardens. During the period in which they work for the institution, they are paid according to the labor they are able to perform; the monitor, who watches over them, reporting the industry of each to the master, who remunerates them accordingly. In their gardens they are allowed to labor for an hour and a half each day; and as they pay a rent for the land and purchase the seeds, they become anxious to spend that time most actively in bringing their gardens into as forward a state as they can. On account of the rough state of the ground, and the novel duties of the schoolmaster, there was, in the first instance, a gardener hired, who directed them in the cultivation of their gardens, and instructed them how to obtain a rotation of crops, in order that the ground should never remain unoccupied; but his services have now been for some time discontinued. So industriously have the boys labored, and so well have they succeeded, that their gardens, with few exceptions, presented, before the crops were harvested, an appearance of neatness and good husbandry. They have all since either disposed of their vegetables, or taken them home to their families. But vegetables were not the only crop; around the border of each, flowers were cultivated. It is a great matter to induce a taste for, and to give a knowledge of, the manner of cultivating flowers. They are luxuries within the power of every person to command. The labor of the children is not confined to gardening; to a cottager there is no knowledge more necessary than that of being able to use the carpenter's tools. To employ a carpenter is what few laborers can afford to do; and, unless he can make or mend a thing for himself, he must be content to go without much that is necessary, and to see his furniture in a dilapidated condition when a little ingenuity would have made him comfortable; the children therefore learn to use carpenter's tools; and those who visit the school will acknowledge that they have done so to some purpose. They have made a large trough for washing in; they have put up racks and nails for their tools; they have constructed a wheelbarrow, and repaired an out building which was in a ruinous condition. Besides carpentering, they also learn to make common shoes, and wooden shoes, such as are used in the North of England; all the boys use them when at work, and a most excellent protection to the feet they are in wet weather. Any bricklayer's work that requires being done they also do; several pieces of wall may be seen which they have constructed. They have now at the time this is writing, completed a wash-house, which, from the foundation to the roof, they have constructed themselves, without any assistance beyond that which the master has been able to give them. In fact, whatever requires being done they do; they are their own bricklayers, carpenters, painters, and glaziers. When there are so many tasks and so many little laborers, it may be easily conceived that, unless some system were adopted by which his own duty may be allotted to each, there would be a considerable confusion. For this purpose, three monitors are appointed each month, whose business it is to designate the task of each boy every morning, to draw up a daily table of industry for the whole school, and to allot to each boy his work for the following day; so that when the hour of labor arrives, each goes to his appointed task,—some to carpenter's work, others to shoe-making, others to wheeling gravel, others to digging, &c. It must be observed that the labor within doors is reserved principally for wet weather.

There is a considerable gaiety and alacrity in all this; the boys learn to sing many cheerful and merry songs; they strike up a tune as they go out in bands to work, and as they return they do the same. Their tools are taken down from their appropriate places, and are duly returned to them; so that, whenever the school may be visited, it will be found that there is a place for every thing, and that every thing is in its place. But this is not for the sake of gratifying the eye of the visitor. Of all habits that give value to industry and exertion—that promote comfort and favor virtue,—there is none more efficacious than this. It is, too, a habit in which the laboring classes are peculiarly deficient; the cultivation of it is considered in this school a point of great moment. Nor is it confined to the arrangement of the tools; prudence and foresight are closely connected with the accurate keeping of accounts. Accordingly each boy has a little book of receipt and expenditure. The profits of his garden, the earnings of his labor, &c., are entered on one side; the payment of rent, the purchase of seeds, &c., on the other.

Thus far has a sound foundation been laid; habits of industry and cheerfulness while at labor,—habits of order and arrangement in the management of expenditure. And did the education cease here, these are not all the advantages which would be derived from it. The gardens are all exposed; all know the value of produce.

It has been asked by persons who have visited the school, "Do not the children rob one another? Is their little produce safe?" It is safe—they do not rob one another. The rightful acquisition of property begets a knowledge of the principles upon which right is grounded. It is clear to them that a mutual respect for one another's rights is the only guarantee for the safety of property. Mutual aggressions would soon destroy their little gardens. The children do not rob, and are thus acquiring habits of justice and honesty.

Again, many of the operations in their little gardens require greater strength than one child is possessed of; they look for assistance to their neighbors, and it is given. This, to those who have not reflected upon this subject, may appear a trifle, but the harmony of society is greatly dependent upon the cultivation of good will, and a readiness to oblige and assist; and any plan is worthy of consideration which can early make the value of this social quality evident to children, and can ground a habit upon it.

Nor is the intellectual education at all impeded by the introduction of industry; on the contrary, wherever it has been tried, the benefits accruing, even in an intellectual point of view, have been found to be great. De Fellenberg, and the Committee of the Children's Friend Society, both bear testimony to this. Nor is Ealing an exception; the master affirms that there is an increased facility in instructing children. If instruction has not as yet been carried to that point which it has arrived at in some other schools, it must be borne in mind that the children came ignorant, and that none have been in the school more than a year; that the monitors, and all the machinery for conducting the school have had to be formed.

The intellectual education is attended to for three hours and a half in the instance of the senior boys, and four hours and a half in the instance of the junior. As elsewhere, they learn to read, to write, and to calculate. Arithmetic is commenced by the balls, upon Mr. Wilderspin's plan, which here, as elsewhere, is found to be efficacious. The children are also practised in answering arithmetical questions from the head, stating the process by which they obtained their result. As there is a great desire to compete for returning the first answer, and it has been found that children, rather than not answer, will answer at hazard, a sufficient time for reflection is given, after which a signal is made; before the signal no boy is allowed to answer.

Music may be made a much more powerful instrument in education than it is. Noble sentiments, woven together with skill, and set to bold and spirit-stirring airs, may, from being coupled with harmony, not only be easily imprinted as precepts upon the memory, but the enlivening circumstance of a number singing them together, may create an enthusiasm with regard to them, which may powerfully aid in cherishing a corresponding feeling. The associating an idea of pleasure with the uttering of sentiments in harmony with the higher feelings, and the seeing others warmly participating in that pleasure will leave a remembrance of some value: one which, when they may hereafter be thrown into the way of hearing music applied to debasing purposes, will give them something to compare it with, and, from a knowledge of what is good, cause them to feel a loathing and a scorn for that which is the contrary. Whoever has been present at the singing of any popular airs by masses of people, in which there is high sentiment, will be convinced, from the effect which he has perceived, of the power of music as an instrument in influencing the actions and character of man.

Drawing has been commenced; and, as the plan develops itself, will occupy an important place in the school instruction—as a means, not only of interesting the children in the variety of forms of objects, but as one of obtaining, communicating, and retaining ideas upon which language operates but faintly. A man sees an agricultural instrument, a press, a coop, a mill, or a building constructed upon a novel plan, so as to secure peculiar advantages; he wishes either to make one of a similar description, or to instruct another how to do so. Without the power of drawing, repeated visits must be made, and perhaps the object itself must either be copied on the spot, or borrowed for that purpose; for, although the mind may have seized the general idea at once, the different details, (upon the proper disposition of which the nature of the instrument or building perhaps depends,) are rarely all observed, or if observed, not recollected. If he draws the object, the case is otherwise; in the first place, every line stamps a distinct recollection, and as the object must be surveyed in detail, the mind will be drawn to a closer scrutiny if the reason of any appearance is not immediately evident. In this manner the individual not only obtains a more definite and useful idea himself, but is enabled to communicate it to another with a clearness which by words alone, it would have been impossible to effect.

It was wished by the founder of the school to make lessons on objects, and other instruction, have reference to the out-door employment; as yet this is but imperfectly done. With a master new to the subject, it is evident that the whole design cannot be effected at once. One step must follow another, and the plan kept steadily

in view must be gradually worked out. Although much has already been effected, and the foundation is firm, the full development of the plan will require time.

To the school a library is attached, containing a number of works of an interesting character; these, the boys are permitted to borrow one at a time, and take home to read. These books are in great request. Such a plan it is conceived, must have an effect, not only upon the children, but the parents. The circumstance of the children in their leisure hours occupying themselves in the perusal of these books cannot but interest the parents; they, too, may either read them, or the children to them. Indeed, Mr. Atlee bears testimony, to this being the fact. Applications are often made on the part of the parents to keep the books a day or two longer. One of the boys is appointed librarian; he keeps a list of the books, and marks the name of the boys to whom they are lent, the date at which lent, and when returned.

At this school, children of parents of every religious denomination are admitted, and arrangements made that the peculiar opinions of none shall be offended.—*First Publication of Central Society of Education.*

SCHOOL OF INDUSTRY AT LINDFIELD, IN SUSSEX.

About the year 1825, Wm. Allen, Treasurer to the British and Foreign School Society, having, in his visits to Brighton and other parts of Sussex, observed the state of ignorance and destitution of the poor of Lindfield and its neighborhood,—scarcely any of the laborers being able to read or write,—purchased some small estates, and built commodious school-rooms, workshops, &c., in which he has ever since supported a boys' school, a girls' schools, and an infant school; the average attendance of children is generally above one hundred.

Several years ago the proprietor published a little tract entitled, "Hints for establishing Schools of Agriculture, upon a plan whereby the labor of the children during a certain time of the day might be made to contribute towards paying the expenses of the school;" and, subsequently, that is, in the beginning of 1835, he adopted the plan himself, by making provision for boarding, lodging, and clothing twelve boys on the manual-labor system. This school has been in successful operation ever since, and is now being enlarged. One great point is, to bring up the boys in habits of industry, and particularly in the knowledge of agriculture; they are employed about five hours a day upon land, when the weather permits, under the immediate inspection of a person well skilled in husbandry; when they cannot work out of doors, some of them are employed in weaving linen, some in the printing office attached to the establishment, some in shoemaking, &c.

The boys are taught to do every thing for themselves as far as practicable; they make their own beds, keep their apartments clean, assist in cooking, clean their shoes, &c.

Each of the twelve boys has a little apartment to himself, about eight feet square, and ten feet to the ceiling, in which is a bed, a chair, and a table, of course; they each have a separate bed, no two boys in the establishment being suffered to sleep together.

Each boy has a garden, consisting of twenty-six rods, or perches; two of which he may cultivate in flowers, or what he likes; twelve rods are for potatoes, and twelve for corn. The expense for manure, &c., is charged; but this being deducted, he receives the rest for pocket money. The average last year was 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* each, or rather more than 6*d.* per week.

The boys are instructed in the most effectual means for supplying the necessities and comforts of life by the cultivation of the land on the spade or garden plan. These boys, beside reading, writing, and arithmetic, are taught English grammar, geography, the use of the globes, land measuring, and such other branches of useful knowledge as are found practicable.

A book is kept, in which the master notes from time to time the conduct and progress of each boy; care is taken that they be well instructed in the evidences of the Christian religion, and in the knowledge of the Bible.

Each boy is made to keep a diary, in which he enters the time spent in each of the objects of his study. An examination generally takes place every month or six weeks, when a summary of the diaries is made, and the progress of each boy is noted; reference being had to the conduct book. The persons employed in the establishment are,

- A principal superintendent, who is also a teacher.
- A school master.
- A school mistress.
- An infant-school mistress.
- A laborer in agriculture, who works with the boys and teaches them.

As the peasants, in general, are so ignorant of the value of education, that they will keep their children from school if they can get employment for them that will bring in a few pence, the proprietor

of the schools gives a shilling a week to such boys as will work for a certain number of hours on the land, and go to the schools for an equal number of hours. This plan has completely succeeded in several instances; the value of the labor being found equal to the shilling per week, so that the schooling is a clear gain to the boy.

All the boarders who are old enough to have the care of a boy's farm, each consisting of three quarters of an acre, and divided into twenty-four parts; each part or division being five rods. There are now fourteen such farms, and the things cultivated are precisely those recommended in a pamphlet called "Colonies at Home," first published by the proprietor in the year 1828 under the name of "The Three Acre or Handicraft Farm;" so that each boy's farm is exactly the fourth part of a farm on which a weaver, tailor, shoemaker, or any other handicraft business might be carried on in connection with agriculture.

This establishment is, in fact, a normal school, for some of the pupils are training to be teachers of the plans.

The following is the distribution of time during the twenty-four hours.

	Hours.	Minutes.
Meals and Recreations,	4	45
School,	4	30
Work,	5	
Public Religious Reading,		30
Sleep, &c.	9	15
	24	00

Gower's Walk School. Among the schools of industry to which we refer, one of the best which we have had an opportunity of inspecting is in Gower's Walk, Whitechapel, London. Placed in the heart of a district densely peopled with the poorer classes, the school owes but little to situation for the contentment and cheerfulness observable in the scholars, whose lively appearance cannot fail to strike every visitor; while the value of the acquirements they are making, is amply manifested in the eagerness shown on the one hand to procure admission to the school, and on the other to obtain the departing pupils as apprentices. When we visited the school, (in July last year) there were two long lists of applicants, the one of masters waiting for children—the other of parents wishing to send their sons and daughters as scholars.

The industrial occupation of the boys is printing; that of the girls, needlework. There are altogether about 200 children in the school, rather more than one half of whom are boys. Both boys and girls are in attendance during seven hours each day. Four hours of this time, are given to the usual business of a school, namely, reading, writing, and arithmetic: the remaining three hours are employed by the girls in needlework, and the boys in printing; with this restriction however, that no boy is allowed to join the class of printers, (a privilege much coveted) until he can read, write and cypher with a certain degree of facility. This regulation is found to act very beneficially in furnishing a motive for increased diligence in the school-room. The printers, in number about sixty, are divided into three classes, some one class being always in the printing-office, and the others in the school-room. Thus the boys are refreshed and relieved by an alternation of manual and mental labor, and both the school-room and printing-office are constantly occupied.

We were much pleased by the scene of life and bustle among the little printers. No lolling and yawning,—no wistful looks at the slow-moving hands of the clock; the signs of cheerful industry were visible in every face, were apparent in the quick motion of every limb. The last time we called at the school happened to be on a holiday afternoon; but no stillness of the printing-office notified the term of relaxation. The busy hand of the compositor was moving to and fro as usual, and the pressman was tugging at his screw-bar with as much energy as ever. On inquiry, we found that the boys engaged were a class of volunteers, who, incredible as it may appear at Eton or Winchester, preferred passing their holiday at work to spending it in play.

We particularly inquired whether the little printers entered fairly into competition with their elders in the same profession; or whether in point of fact, there was not some protection, some favor of friends, conceding better terms than are allowed elsewhere. We were, however, assured that the school depends on no partiality of the kind; that, on the contrary, a prevailing prejudice against work done by boys, depresses their prices below those usually given for work executed in the same style. It is, of course, necessary that the little fellows should work many more hours than an adult printer, in order to obtain an equal remuneration; what the latter would get through in a day may occupy one of them a week, a fortnight, or even a month; but as the work is paid for by the piece, it is evident that the increased time is followed by no additional recompense.

As evidence of the neatness of the work, it is sufficient to refer to the reports of the National Society, which are always printed by these children. So far as appears to us, the typography of these books bears no mark of inferiority, and we believe it furnishes no

clue to the age of those by whom it was executed, save what is found in the imprint, "School Press, Gower's Walk, Whitechapel." It is proper to remark, that the boys receive a good deal of instruction and assistance in the practice of their art; but the cost of this aid is taken out of the proceeds of the printing, which even after this deduction, furnish a considerable sum towards the general expenses of the school, and finally, give a handsome surplus to be divided among the boys.

It appears that the school has existed on its present footing for nearly thirty years. The building, which was formerly a sugar bake house, was applied to its present use by the benevolent and enlightened founder of the school, Mr. Davies, who also endowed the school with the sum of 2000*l.* in the Three per Cent. Consols. The income of 60*l.* a year arising from this sum, and the use of the building rent-free, are all that interfere with the self-supporting character of the establishment. Yet with this moderate help is a school carried on in which two hundred children receive a comparatively good education, being trained in habits of cheerful industry, taught a useful art, and moreover instructed in the ordinary branches of a school education. And not only is all this effected, but a sum of money averaging more than 100*l.* a year, is divided among the children according to their respective savings; one half being immediately distributed in the form of pocket money, and the remainder set aside to meet the expenses of outfit, apprentices' premium, &c. at the time of departure. A boy will in this way accumulate 4*l.*, 5*l.*, 6*l.*, or even 10*l.* before leaving the school; no inconsiderable sum for a lad in this rank of life to start with in the world.

The monthly gains of the little printers average about three shillings per boy, though sometimes an individual will have to receive as much as six shillings. A savings' bank has lately been opened in the school, as an additional encouragement to thrifty habits, and the smallest sums, down to a single half penny, are received. Most of the children have become depositors, though they are quite at liberty to keep their money in their own possession. The bank was opened last February, and when we visited the school in July, the deposits amounted to 23*l.* One boy, a lad of thirteen years of age, was pointed out, who alone had deposited 1*l.* in this short time. This little fellow was of course, one of the volunteer workers on the holiday afternoon; and we learnt, that, not satisfied with the labor of the printing-office, he was in the habit of carrying out milk before he came to school in the morning, and of helping his father, a gun-maker, in the evening.

From time to time, the money collected in the school savings bank is placed in the public savings bank of the district, and the interest received is distributed in just shares among the boys. Each one is periodically furnished with a full statement of his account, and it is needless to say that, on passing into his hands, the document is certain to be subjected forthwith to a most rigorous audit.

Without shutting our eyes to the defects of the system we have attempted to describe, effects however by no means peculiar to it, we feel ourselves fully warranted in setting a very high value on its advantages. In the formation of good habits—a principal object of early education—the effect of such plans must be far greater than is produced in many a school of high pretensions, and of great expense; and humble as are its objects and its means, the school in Gower's walk presents much which these prouder establishments would find well worthy of imitation.

It would be interesting to trace the progress of the children brought up at this school, in their career in life; but without some system of registration, such inquiries are very difficult. So far, however, as the master of the school has had opportunities of learning, the subsequent conduct of the pupils has been very good. Many are known to have become thriving men and respectable members of society, and in no one instance, did the master ever hear of a child educated at Gower's Walk, being convicted of an offence against the laws of his country.—*Id.*

BRENTON ASYLUM AT HACKNEY WICK.

Another school of industry which we have visited with much gratification, is the Brenton Asylum at Hackney Wick, near London, intended principally for the reception of juvenile vagrants. The plan of the society by which this asylum is supported, justly termed the Children's Friend Society, is to take children, who owing to the manner in which they have been brought up, are unable to obtain an honest livelihood, to give these children a rude kind of education, and then to send them to a country where labour is more in demand than it is in England; thus at once to cut them off from their old connections, and give them an opportunity of establishing a new character.

The average number of children in the school of this excellent institution is about fifty, and their ages vary generally from ten to fourteen years. Their time is divided between productive labor (chiefly agricultural) and school exercises; six hours a day being given to the former, and three hours to the latter. The first practical knowledge inculcated on a novice in this society is, that his

comforts in life will depend mainly on his own exertions; nay, that if he indulges in idleness, he may want the very necessities of life. He is informed at the outset, that he will have to labor to earn at least a part of his maintenance before he will have food to eat. The justice of this regulation is explained; and so clear is the principle that every one ought to do what he can for himself before claiming assistance from others, that few, even of the dullest, can be proof against the demonstration. We may here observe, that great care is taken in all cases, to show the boys the reasonableness of the regulations to which they are required to submit. "You must, because you must," is not the logic of Hackney Wick. Everything is effected (as far as possible,) by addressing the understandings, and working upon the good feelings of the boys; and the poor lads, surprised and delighted at hearing, (perhaps for the first time in their lives,) the voice of kindness and intelligence, frequently yield without a struggle, and enter at once on a course of good conduct.

The shortness of the term usually passed in the asylum, must of course, render it difficult for the children to acquire such skill in cultivating the land as would enable them to do much towards defraying the cost of their maintenance. Their field must be looked upon as a school, in which they are receiving lessons, (and most valuable lessons they are) with a view principally of future advantage. For the sake of such instruction, it would be well worth while hiring land for the cultivation, even if the produce did not pay the rent; the reason, even in this extreme case, being at least as strong as that which induces us to furnish the young tyro with a copy-book, despite the foreknowledge that his pot-hooks will have no other immediate effect than that of destroying the value of the paper on which they are scrawled. In point of fact, however, the boys do raise a crop which more than repays the cost of the land, and all expenses connected with its cultivation. Nor is this all the labor they perform; for, under the direction of the mistress of the asylum, they do all the washing, cleaning, cooking, and other household work connected with the establishment. The boys also repair their own clothes, and their own shoes, under the care of journey-men in the different crafts, who for a small sum, attend occasionally to teach them.

The school is conducted on the monitorial system; and we were glad to observe that instruction is given on the meaning of words, and on other subjects calculated to awaken the intellectual powers.

The boys appeared to be contented and happy; and this fact is confirmed, as well by the excellent health they enjoy, as by the fact of their remaining in the asylum; for the doors are open to all who may wish to leave—a facility of which some very few have, at different times, availed themselves.

Notwithstanding, however, that the condition of these children, when in the asylum, is one of comparative comfort, they look forward with eagerness to the time when they are to go out as emigrants. Doubtless, this desire is in some measure based on the love of novelty, the wish for adventure, the admiration of what is unknown: in few instances, alas! is it restrained by any strong bonds of affection—any ties of love that bind them to the scenes and partners of their former life. But perhaps the change derives its greatest attractions from that regulation of the establishment which allots early departure as a mode of distinction, and a reward for good conduct. The boys are divided into three classes, from the highest of which the emigrants are drafted. Promotion depends principally on moral improvement; but a boy is not admitted to the highest class until he has made a certain progress in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and can handle his farming tools tolerably well.

It may readily be supposed that obstacles to the right working of the plan sometimes arise from the connections of those for whose benefit it is intended. Occasionally, the parents endeavor to dissuade the children from going out, but the boys are generally firm in their resolution. A recent instance was mentioned to us, in which this attempt was repeatedly made by the father and mother of an intelligent boy, who had conducted himself exceedingly well in the asylum. One day, coming to the school half-intoxicated, they resorted to threats and imprecations. The boy, however, continued steady in his resolution, saying, "Father, you know it is of no use: if I go home again, I shall be sure to get with Tom Jenkins and Jack Smith, and then I shall be as bad as ever." We wish all who talk learnedly on the subject of crime had as great an insight into its true causes, as this poor child.—*Hill's Nat. Ed.*

ASYLUMS IN THE ISLAND OF GUERNSEY.

The following notice of the hospitals in Guernsey, (there are two of them) is extracted from a brief account of that interesting little island, which we drew up after visiting it about five years ago.

One of the most striking changes which the visitor, either from England or France, meets with on his landing in Guernsey, is the entire absence of beggars. That miserable compound of imposture and real distress, the wandering mendicant, is there unknown. A tradesman who has been established at St. Peter's Port, the town of the island, for upwards of thirty years, assured me that during

the whole period of his residence in the island, he had never once seen a beggar. For myself, I neither saw nor heard of one; and I was satisfied from all I learnt, that a beggar is in Guernsey, a being of a past age, a creature of history, a fit subject for the speculations of the antiquary, but too completely covered with the dust of ancient times for those of the present day to examine.

Not only is the island free from beggars, but it is free also from those debased but unfortunate creatures, whom the twilight of evening brings forth from their hiding places, like swarms of moths, to join the giddy dance round the flame that is soon to destroy them. Prostitution proceeds from the same sources as mendicity, want and ignorance; and where the latter is not found, the former will rarely be met with. Be that as it may, however, the fact is, that the streets and roads of Guernsey are not disgraced by the appearance either of the prostitute or the beggar.

Two establishments, called the Town and Country Hospitals, exist in the island, to which all persons are sent, who, for any reasons whatever, are unable or unwilling to obtain an honest livelihood. In these establishments are to be found females, who would otherwise be living by prostitution; the habitual drunkard, the lunatic, the destitute orphan, all have here an asylum, and are removed from the temptation and misery to which they would otherwise be exposed.

I visited the Town Hospital, (situated not in the town itself, but in the outskirts,) and I was very much gratified with what I saw.—The scene was a busy one. The men were occupied, some in weaving cloth, some as tailors, others as shoemakers, &c. The women were engaged principally in washing. In addition to the washing for the hospital, a great deal is taken in from families living in the neighborhood, and by this means the women do much towards paying the expense of their maintenance. The greater part of the clothes, shoes, &c. which the men manufacture, is sold. The men are also employed in the town as scavengers.

By thus employing the men and women at profitable labor, instead of setting them to turn a great stone, as is done in some of our parishes, the expense of the maintenance of the inmates of the hospital is greatly reduced. The average yearly expense of each inmate is not more than seven pounds, notwithstanding that at least half of those in the hospitals are boys and girls who produce but little, being the greater part of the day in school; and notwithstanding also that there are many lunatics and infirm people who are, of course, unable to do anything towards their own support. The number of inmates in the town and country hospitals together, is about three hundred, and their expense to the island is about 2000*l.* a year.

The arrangements of the hospitals, and the discipline maintained in them, are excellent; at the same time, the inmates are treated with great kindness, are allowed an abundance of good wholesome food, and are well clothed and lodged. Those whose conduct deserves reward are frequently allowed to visit their friends for a day or so; but if the privilege is abused, (as for instance, if any one returns to the hospital in a state of intoxication,) he is not allowed to leave the hospital again for several months. On the whole, whether we regard these hospitals as asylums from misery, or as schools of morality, I must say, that I have never yet seen any institutions in this country that would bear comparison with them.—*Id.*

WARWICK COUNTY ASYLUM.

This interesting and valuable institution was established about seventeen years ago, principally by the exertions of Sir Eardley Wilmot, a gentleman who has ever taken a benevolent and active interest in the reform of juvenile offenders, and the amendment of the laws concerning them.

It appears that, of 164 children who have passed through the asylum, 93 have been permanently reformed, as shewn by their continuance in respectable employ; of the remaining 70, 23 were dismissed for bad conduct, and 48 absconded; and from these two classes, nineteen have been subsequently transported for new offences. Compared with the ordinary course of young offenders, this result must be considered very satisfactory.

In some cases, a magistrate will consent not to commit a boy to prison on condition of his entering the County Asylum. In such instances, the boys reform is found to be comparatively speedy and certain. But where a boy has once been exposed to the contamination of an ill-regulated goal, (and few of our goals we fear, are conducted on even a tolerably good system,) reform becomes both difficult and precarious. So, at any rate, it is found to be at the Warwick Asylum.

It may appear extraordinary to many, that one great obstacle with which the promoters of the Asylum have to contend, arises from unwillingness on the part of the parents of young offenders to place their children in the institution; an institution where they know their children will be kindly treated; where food, clothing, and lodging will be gratuitously furnished; where the rudiments of learning will be given, and the power of earning an honest livelihood imparted.—*Id.*

INFANT SCHOOLS.

It is generally admitted that the high honor of originating and first bringing into successful operation this important instrument of human improvement and happiness, is due to Mr. Robert Owen. Dr. Pole, in his notice of the rise of infant schools, published in the year 1824, states that Mr. Owen's infant schools at New Lanark were in full activity so far back as the year 1816. A step towards the introduction of infant schools had certainly been taken by Mr. Fellenberg even before this time; but this does not subtract from Mr. Owen's merit, and but little from the originality of his plan. All that Mr. Fellenberg had done, according to Dr. Pole, was to make a provision for having the children of their agricultural laborers taken care of, whilst their parents were at work.

Their number, according to Mr. Wilderspin, may be estimated roughly, at about 150 in England, 70 in Scotland, and 50 in Ireland; each school containing on an average about 100 scholars.

INFANT SCHOOL IN QUAKER STREET, SPITALFIELDS.

The number of scholars averages 150 in summer and 100 in winter; and their ages vary from two to eight years. There is a charge of a penny per week for each child. This charge, Mr. Brown, the master of the school, believes to have the effect of deterring many parents from sending their children, such is the poverty of the district, and so great, we may add, is the moral degradation which generally accompanies extreme poverty. The regularity of the attendance of such as do come, has, however, increased since the charge was first made. At a rough estimate, it appears that one-sixth part of the infant population in the neighborhood are sent to this school.

Such of the children as have steady respectable parents, generally stay about two years. The continuance of the others is very variable, sometimes not more than a few weeks. The children are in school six hours each day—namely, from nine to twelve, and from two to five. There are, however, frequent intervals of a few minutes, when the children run out into a small open court, which serves as a playground.—The afternoon, too, of Saturday is a holiday.

We reached the school some minutes before the proper time for assembling. Most of the children, however, had arrived, and they were playing very merrily in their open court. Mrs. Brown, who assists in the management of the school, was with them. Some of the children were swinging, surrounded by a crowd of little performers, who were marking the time by singing; the burden of the song being the multiplication table. While standing by this innocent and happy group, we observed a piece of broken platter fly through the air, and very nearly strike the head of one of the children. It had been flung over the wall of an adjoining yard; and, upon inquiry we found that their brutal neighbors frequently greeted them in this way.

When the bell rang, all the children ran, (apparently with the greatest good will,) into school. Having ranged themselves in order round the room, the master and mistress went in different directions to examine them, and see that every one had clean hands. Some were taken out to wash their hands, while those who were particularly clean and neat, were honored by being allowed to accompany their master or mistress, in their procession. This business being ended, the school exercises began. The first was called a lesson in spelling. Had it been so in fact, the task would probably have proved as irksome as it must necessarily have been useless. In truth, however, it was an exercise in general knowledge. A little fellow with a list of words in his hand, mounted a box dignified with the name of rostrum, and spelled one of the words aloud, as *baker*. This was followed by a number of questions, as—What does the baker do? What is the place called where the bread is baked? What is bread made of? &c. Any child, or any number together, being allowed to answer, the interest of all was kept alive. When a number of words had been taken in this way, a new exercise was called for. This, like several others that followed it, was very properly arranged, rather for the agreeable occupation of the children, and the development of their physical powers, than with any view to the communication of what is ordinarily called knowledge; the latter was at least made quite a secondary object. The proceeding would have sadly scandalized a governess of the old school; many a time when the children and ourselves were in the highest glee, her fingers would have itched to grasp the rod. One of the most popular of these diversions consisted in rudely imitating the motions of the different tribes of the brute creation; the birds flew, the beasts ran, the insects crawled; the performance elicited much arch humor, and the merriment was quite infectious; the last manoeuvre of the game brought the little creatures into one joyous group in the middle of the room, and in the roar of laughter which burst forth, we confess we heartily joined.

After a variety of other exercises, singing began, and was carried on with great spirit; the very least of the infantile group singing occasionally for a bar or two, and imitating, as well as he could, the motions of the arms and body by which the words are sometimes accompanied.

Before leaving, we offered to tell the children a story, in order that we might have an opportunity of taking them upon ground which must be new to them. The offer was gladly accepted; and the children were marshalled in a gallery which rises from the floor at one

end of the room. We found an attentive audience; and we were pleased with the questions they put when the story was ended, and the answers they returned to our own questions.—*Id.*

SCHOOL OF THE HOME AND COLONIAL INFANT SCHOOL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

"The Home and Colonial Infant School Society" was instituted in 1836, to promote the cause of infant education, by pointing out to the public the indispensable qualifications of teachers, by providing an establishment where teachers might be received and their acquirements put to the test and improved, and by publishing lectures, lessons, manuals, and other appropriate works. To carry out the second part of this undertaking, the society found a model infant school absolutely necessary. The teachers were instructed in the principles of their art, but as the schools which they visited did not exemplify these principles, they were not trained in the practice of them, and hence, in many cases, their career did not justify the expectations of the society.

The Model Infant school established by this society, is upon the enlightened plan which I have already described, the teacher having been trained in the Normal school at Glasgow; but it partakes, in a considerable degree, of the peculiarities of the Edinburgh school. Thus, in religious instruction, its aim is to avoid such matter as shall be objectionable to any denomination of Christians, and it carries intellectual education further than its Glasgow model. The method of teaching to read, which is strongly recommended, after trial in this school, is an attempt to apply the phonic method of the German schools to our language, so irregular in the sounds of the letters, and in their combinations into syllables and words. The consonants are taught first to be named by the sound most like that in combination, and, besides, are classified into families. Pictures of objects, the names of which begin with the different consonants, are used to impress them upon the child's memory. Next, the shapes of the consonants are given, and so described as to recall them by association, the large and small printed letters being taught separately. The children are next taught to form words, by putting the consonants before the vowels, beginning with the short sound of *a*. Next, before syllables beginning with the short sounds of *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and *y*, when replacing *i*, with exercises upon the sound of vowels indiscriminately. The short sound in syllables followed by *r*. The placing of *s* at the end of words. More than one consonant before a vowel. Silent letters. The syllables *th* and *qu*. Words ending with two consonants. The final syllables, *ble*, &c. Words ending with *ng*. The sound of *ch*. Long vowels followed by a consonant. Long vowels followed by *r*. The diphthongs *ou* and *au*. Soft sound of *e*. Diphthongs of *ow* and *oy*, and soft sound of *g*. Diphthong *ei*. Sound of *a* after *u*, and some irregular words. Diphthong *eu*, and some irregular words. I was particularly pleased with the lessons given in sensible objects, and the incidental exercises of orthography to which they led. The pictures used are a decided improvement on those commonly employed, but a difficulty in their use has been discovered, from the very precise ideas which the child attaches to them, by which truth appears to be violated, when the same subject is illustrated differently in two pictures. It has been found possible to overcome this difficulty, in a degree, by impressing upon the child that these pictures are merely general illustrations, and not precise representations of events which the artist has witnessed.

The small play-ground here is better furnished with the means of infant gymnastic exercises than that of Glasgow, but is by no means commodious.

The teachers who are in training receive theoretical lessons, attend the practice of the school, are employed to teach small classes in separate rooms, under superintendence, and, finally, practice with the entire class. The course for teachers is, as yet, however, of too limited a duration, being only three months; but it is proposed to extend it when further means of reducing the cost of the maintenance of the pupil-teachers shall be afforded.—*Bache's Rep.*

SCHOOLS OF THE "BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY," AND OF THE "NATIONAL SOCIETY."

These schools form the chief medium of direct education in England. The monitorial system is common to the schools of both societies. There has been some angry contention between the supporters of Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster, as to which is entitled to the chief merit of originating the plans and methods of this system. Dr. Bell's first experiments were tried at Madras, in the year 1789, and eight years afterwards he published the results of them in this country. Public attention being soon attracted to the subject, in a great measure through the exertions of Mr. Lancaster, a society was formed in the year 1805, for carrying the plans, as modified by Mr. Lancaster, into general operation. This society eventually took the name of the "British and Foreign School Society." Six years after its formation, another society was established with a similar object. This latter corporation took the name of the "National Society for promoting the education of the poor, on the principles

of the Established Church, throughout England and Wales."

The total number of children in the British schools is estimated at between 60,000 and 80,000. This estimate, however, (as the secretary of the society is careful to state,) cannot be relied upon; there being but little certain information on the subject. The number of children in London is stated to be 12,300, as ascertained by the inspector employed by the society; who, during the course of the last year, visited every school in the metropolis, and reported on each separately. The population of London at the last census, (1831) was 1,500,000, or about one-ninth part of the entire population of England and Wales. Hence, if the British schools in the country generally bore a ratio to the population equal to what they do in London, the total number of children in them would be about 110,000. There is, however, little doubt that the towns are much better provided with schools than the rural districts; and thus the secretary's estimate is probably not below the true number.

In the reports of the National Society, the number of children is stated to be about 500,000; but, as we have seen, this number is probably much over-estimated. The number in London, as given in detail, in the society's Report for 1833, is 19,100. Assuming this number to be correct, and the result would be 172,000 for the whole of England and Wales, taking the population of London as a basis of calculation. The deficiency in the rural districts is probably less as respects National schools than British schools.

In the British schools, instruction is given in reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, and a competent knowledge of the Scriptures. In the National schools, reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, a competent knowledge of the Scriptures, and the church catechism. In some of the British schools, the education extends to geography, and in a few, to the elements of geometry, including the measurement of land. In some of the National schools, (as we have mentioned,) a valuable and important improvement has been effected by the introduction of various branches of manual labor.

In many of the British schools, a great improvement has been introduced, during the last three or four years, with a view of rendering the exercises more intellectual, and of imparting general knowledge. By inquiring the meaning of every word they read, of every word they write, and of everything they do. We never allow them to do anything, without asking them how they do it, and why they do it. We avail ourselves fully of the principle of interrogation.

In the National schools, this improvement has not yet been introduced; and the consequence is, a comparative dullness and lethargy in their classes, excepting always the schools which have adopted the excellent plan of mixing manual labor with ordinary school studies. How, indeed, is it possible for a poor child to keep up its attention, when its sole employment is to dole out a few sentences as the slow turn goes round, and these containing many words to which he can attach no meaning, written in a style above his comprehension, and often relating to subjects in which he has not yet learned to feel an interest.

Each society has its model school and establishment for training teachers; the two being in each case united. The model school and training establishment of the British and Foreign School Society, is in the Borough Road, Southwark; that of the National Society is in the Sanctuary, Westminster. This latter society has also several model schools and training establishments on a smaller scale in different parts of the country.

The training establishments are, as we have remarked, in a very imperfect state; affording only a few months instruction; and that to young men, who, in many instances, have a very scanty stock of knowledge to start with, and who, for several years, have of been engaged in occupations altogether unconnected with the business of education. Everything, however, is comparative; and in the absence of any other public provision for preparing teachers for popular elementary schools, these training establishments are very valuable, and reflect great credit on those who founded them.

We have lately visited the principal model schools of each society, and the following is the result of our observations:—

Borough Road School. This school appears to be very ably conducted, so far as the limited means in use will allow. Our first glance round the room gave us a favorable impression. The general appearance of life and cheerfulness among the scholars; the intelligence and vivacity of the monitors; and the ardour, talent, and good-temper which were depicted in the countenance of the master, satisfied us that there must be much that was excellent in the working of the school.

The room in which the boys are taught is exceedingly spacious and lofty; so that even when the whole school is assembled (to the number of 500) there is no feeling of closeness or impurity in the air. The girls, of whom there are about 300, are taught in a separate room. When we entered the boys' school-room, most of the classes were occupied in reading; and we were much pleased with the care that was taken to see that the children understood every word they uttered.

After we had heard several of the classes read under the moni-

tors, the monitors themselves were formed into a class for reading. The book was the New Testament, and we were invited to select a chapter. We were much struck with the feeling, the attention to emphasis and inflection, and the general propriety with which the boys read. We have in fact seldom heard better reading from children of any rank of life, and whether regarded as a distinct accomplishment, or as an index of mental cultivation, the exercise reflected great credit on the children and their instructors. We afterwards examined a class of monitors in mental arithmetic, and in the elements of practical geometry; and we found the boys very expert in their powers of calculation and possessing clear conceptions of the nature and properties of many geometrical figures.

While we were engaged in these examinations, the general classes had formed at the desks for writing. The boys write on slates, and, (excepting those just beginning) from the dictation of the monitors. As the writing goes forward, the monitors keep passing to and fro, to point out errors in the spelling, faults in the writing, &c. the master superintending the whole, as usual. We looked over the slates of many of the boys, and were pleased with the neatness of the writing, and the general correctness of the spelling.

The drudgery of repeating the multiplication table is got over here as in infant schools, by setting the table to music. At a given signal, one of the monitors led off to the tune of "Sound the loud timbrel o'er Egypt's dark sea." We were much amused at hearing the quiet and unassuming facts of the multiplication table come forth in such animating and heart-stirring periods. We suppose the little fellow reserved this air for state occasions, for all the other airs were of a much more homely kind. The children sang in good tune and good time; but as they did not take different parts, the pleasing effect of harmony was wanting.

We made particular inquiries as to what acquirements the children did in fact make; and the information we received agrees with that given by Mr. Dunn to the Education Committee, which therefore we extract:—

"What amount of knowledge do those who are best educated possess when they leave your school? Those who remain in the school for twelve months, will learn to read well; but those remaining for three or four years will both read and write well, and perform any sum in the common books of arithmetic; they acquire also a considerable knowledge of geography, can draw maps, and are made acquainted with the elements of geometry. Their general intelligence, judging from the opinions expressed by visitors, is equal to that of any boys of their age."

The usual punishment consists of detention out of school-hours; tasks are never imposed, and by the rules of the school, the infliction of corporeal punishment in any and every form, is strictly forbidden.

Training Establishment.—The number of scholar-teachers, (as the French call them,) is generally about 24. Their time is divided between teaching and learning; or, to speak more accurately, between the practical study of didactics and the acquisition of that knowledge which it will be their duty to communicate. They are expected to apply very closely to their studies while they are in the establishment; and, in point of fact, they are at work with but short interruptions, from five in the morning, till nine at night.—Still, their stay is so brief, (not exceeding three months on an average) that they necessarily leave the schools in a very imperfect state of preparation. As might be expected, those are found best to succeed who have a love for the profession; this quality making up for great deficiency in positive acquirements; and indeed doing much towards enabling the possessor to make rapid progress in the various studies in which a teacher should excel. On this subject, Mr. Dunn gives the following evidence before the Education Committee:

"Those teachers that you send out to the country, are those persons who have served their time to other professions, and have applied to you, and whom you have found competent? The persons who make the best teachers in our schools are intelligent mechanics, or persons who have been employed in shops or warehouses, but who seem attached to teaching; these are the class of persons we want, and we generally find them out by inquiring for them in Sunday schools. We consider that a person who has given up the Sunday voluntarily to the gratuitous instruction of the poor, has afforded evidence that he has some taste for teaching, and may probably be useful in a day school. We have frequently found that persons who have been through life accustomed to private tuition, although possessed of considerable attainments, make very poor teachers of British schools. A large class of persons may be met with, who have acquired a good deal, but who have no ability for communicating what they know to children."

We are sorry not to have it in our power to report as favorably of the model school of the National Society, Sanctuary, Westminster, as of the one in the Borough Road. We walked round the reading classes, as we had done in the Borough Road School, but with comparatively little pleasure; the proceedings not being relieved and intellectualized by judicious questions and explanations, and the monotonous tones of the readers too well showing that the sense had

not reached their heads, still less penetrated to their hearts. Of another exercise, we are glad to speak far more favorably; we looked over the writing of some of the boys, and all such specimens as we saw were very good.

On inquiring how long the children remained in the school, and what they generally acquired, we were told that they stay on an average as much as three years; and that before leaving, they can generally read easily, can write, and work arithmetical operations in either of the first four simple and compound rules in Arithmetic, and have moreover acquired a tolerable knowledge of the Scriptures.

There is a library attached to the school, to which the monitors only, as we believe, have access.

Some of the young men who are in process of training for teachers, were in the school-room while we were there. They were standing in a class of little boys, and appeared to be performing the same exercises as their juvenile companions—in a word to be *pro tempore* scholars. We understood that in this manner they passed through the classes *seriatim*, until they reached the top; by which time they were generally ready to be draughted off as teachers. *Hill.*

REPORT OF A VISIT TO THE BOROUGH ROAD SCHOOL, BY HERMAN COATES.

The Borough Road School is attended by from 400 to 500 children, many of them belonging to the poorest classes in London. The school hours are from nine in the morning until twelve, and from two in the afternoon until five. It is under the superintendence of a master, who is assisted by a number of young men who are learning the system of instruction. Two things must be perpetually borne in mind while examining this school. 1st. That the problem to be solved in it is, not as in schools for the opulent classes, what is the greatest quantity of information which can be communicated to the scholar; but how much instruction can be given with the least possible outlay of money. 2ndly, it must be remembered, that whereas the education of the children of the opulent classes is, in most cases, systematically pursued during a series of years, and if not encouraged, at least it is not opposed by the influences of home; the instruction of the children at the Borough Road school never, in the most favorable circumstances, extends beyond a very few years, and during these it is interrupted by a variety of impediments arising out of the poverty of the children. The children are often kept at home because their clothing is insufficient to resist the inclemency of the weather; they are far more subject to sickness than young people well clad, wholesomely and sufficiently fed, dwelling in airy streets and well ventilated houses, and carefully watched with regard to their cleanliness, and to any symptom of indisposition. Again, they are taken away whenever an opportunity is offered them of earning their livelihood during a few months, or even weeks; and this interruption occurs especially to the cleverest boys,—to those, in short, on whom the reputation of a school is principally built. Above all, the homes of the poor are usually a great impediment to education. The children are often confined to one small, inconvenient, unfurnished room with their parents, and, perhaps, younger children; sometimes, (as the inquiries instituted by this Society show) sharing that room with another family; they are without books, or if these are lent to them, they are without the quiet necessary for reading; they are unassisted by the superior information of parents or governesses, to which their more fortunate brethren are solicited to resort; and the topics which they hear discussed at home can tend little to their improvement.

If, notwithstanding all these discouragements, the Borough Road school has imparted to the children so circumstanced, not only as much, but far more knowledge of all sorts than children of the opulent classes possess at the same age, undoubtedly the system of instruction used at that school is well worthy of the most serious attention.

The following notes are the results of three recent visits; two paid to the school in the morning, and one in the afternoon. During these visits, the writer was left to his own discretion as to the course and the subjects of his examination; sometimes the master was with him in order to remove any obstacle which might have arisen to his progress, and a monitor was generally beside him. From Mr. Dunn, the secretary of the society, and from Mr. Crossley, the master of the school, to both of whom he distinctly explained the ultimate object of his visits, he received every possible facility; and he gratefully bears witness to the readiness with which they invited and assisted his scrutiny of the proceedings in the school.

The school room is a long square, capable of containing more than 500 boys; at one end of it is a raised platform, and the centre of the room is occupied by desks and benches. The walls are hung with reading lessons, maps and drawings; and semicircles of which the walls form the chord, are drawn at small distances from each other along both the longer sides of the room. Round these semicircles, divisions,—or, as they are termed, drafts,—containing eight children each, were placed; learning, some to read, others to spell words varying from four letters to as many syllables. A monitor, selected on account of his attainments and temper from a higher class, presides over each draft; and through this monitor the

greater part of the information which the children receive is conveyed. The monitors, like the under masters and ushers in other schools, seemed to differ in merit. Some of the youngest obviously went faster than the slowest of their little scholars, and assumed that to be understood which did not appear to the writer to have been so; some of their definitions, too, were insufficient; but all maintained their authority; all showed a perfect command, of temper; and by far the greater part a surprising facility of illustration, and of associating to the subject immediately under discussion others connected with it.

The process of teaching spelling is for the monitor to point out a word on the board and to spell it, showing each letter as he names it; he spells it again, and the class repeat the letters after him; he calls on various children to point out the letters composing the word, then he explains his meaning, and the class repeat his definition; afterwards he gives all the information which occurs to him relating to the word, putting his instruction as much as possible in the form of interrogatory.

The following are some of the words which the writer heard, or pointed out, as he went from draft to draft. *Farthing?* a coin, the fourth of a penny. How many are there in three halfpence? What is it made of? What is copper? What kingdom does it belong to in nature? How many kingdoms are there? Where do metals come from? *Spell mine.* Soap? a greasy substance. What is it used for? This definition was obviously inadequate, and the writer wished to see whether it prevailed throughout the school; a boy in a higher class defined soap to be a mixture of alkali and grease.

The writer selected a class of boys, none of whom were more than nine years old. These he himself examined upon the words which occurred in the lessons before them. The monitor of this class was ten years old; he had been two years in the school, and was a boy of great intelligence. The writer singled out particular boys to answer each question; but was often frustrated by the eagerness with which all the class pressed forward to answer. *Parable?* a story. Are all stories parables? No; it is a story in which one thing is compared to another—especially things earthly to things heavenly. Mention three or four parables. The sower; the prodigal son; the unjust steward; the rich man and Lazarus. *Miracle?* Something beyond human power. Mention some. Who wrought them? The Prophets, our Saviour, and his Apostles. Did they all do so in like manner? (The monitor asked this question.) No; Christ wrought miracles of his own power; the Apostles, through the power of Christ. What makes you think so? Our Saviour said, "Arise! take up thy bed and walk;" the Apostles said, "In the name of Jesus of Nazareth, I, &c." *Mediator?* One who is placed between. An instance? Our Saviour. Between whom did he mediate? God and man. Why? Because man had sinned against God. What is a sin? 1st. answer.—Doing that which hurts others. 2nd.—Doing that which God has forbidden. Mention sins. Lying, stealing. Why is lying a sin? 1st. answer.—Because nobody will know when you tell the truth. 2nd.—Because it leads others wrong. 3rd.—Because God has forbidden it. Where? "Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor." "Lie not one with another," &c. Then followed a similar examination about theft, which elicited the history of the ten commandments. The writer then put to the class some simple questions upon arithmetic; for instance:—If eight slates cost 8d. each, how much would they all cost? If each cost 8½d? These were answered correctly.

At the farther end of the school, classes were copying maps, geometrical figures, animals, and flowers. A boy of ten years old drew from memory an outline of Europe; when he had got to Spain, he pointed out that he had drawn the northern part upon too large a scale for the board, and must therefore crowd the southern. Eight or nine boys in the neighborhood were then examined by the writer, whose questions, notwithstanding his efforts to pick out particular boys, were generally answered by all. One or two fingers sometimes pointed wrong, but the proportion of error was never greater. The following are some of the questions:—Where is London? Where York? Vienna? On what river is Vienna? Trace the Danube. Where is Gibraltar? What is opposite to Gibraltar? What is that sea? What is the meaning of Mediterranean? Where is the Loire? Where Dublin? Cork?

Another boy drew a map of England, which gave rise to a more strict examination.

A boy, eleven years and a half old, had been drawing an air-pump; the writer sent him away, and selected three others, one eight years and a half, the other two ten years old, to explain it. Mr. Crossley examined them. They analysed the whole; showed the position of those parts which the drawing could not represent, explained the nature of the lever used, the form described by the handle, the use of the cog-wheel, and the reason for the form and strength of the receiver. The boy who had drawn the pump, drew, at the writer's request, without a ruler, a perpendicular line one foot long; he then divided it in half; a foot rule proved the line to be

perfectly straight, to be eleven and a half inches long, and to be divided precisely in half. Boys were drawing the curves shown in the section of a cornice, and in the bases of pillars. One was drawing a diagram in optics; and a class of seven boys was busy upon a drawing of a plant in flower. This class was examined by their monitor; the writer selecting the boys who should answer the questions. They analysed the whole plant, explaining the uses of every part, from the root to the pollen; they analysed and explained the Greek and Latin technical words,—such as *monopetalous*, *polyandrous*, *bifoliate*; and they traced the progress of vegetation from the bud to the seed, and so on to the flower again. They showed, too, the analogy between a tree and a plant.

In order to satisfy the curiosity of a Roman Catholic clergyman from Alsace, who accompanied the writer on one of his visits, the children suddenly sang, in parts, two or three simple melodies. The writer was informed by his friend that the singing was good; it certainly was very pleasing. They then, at the word of command, took their places at the desks, and went with great rapidity through the evolutions which they practise in commencing and concluding the labors of the school.

Having thus made himself fully acquainted with the ordinary operations of the school, the writer was desirous to learn what was the quantity of information really obtained by boys who have been sufficiently long in the school to be a fair test of the system. For this purpose, he was allowed to have in a separate room about fifty boys, of at least two years' standing; from these he selected twelve of the eldest, and sent them away; the rest he examined. Sometimes Mr. Crossley was present, and two monitors were constantly in the room: but no one interfered, excepting at the request of the writer, who selected the order of the subjects, and the boys to answer.

About twenty of the boys read two chapters from the Scriptures, each taking two verses; they read clearly, slowly, without a tone, and with peculiarly good emphasis; with the exception of three boys who pronounced the *a* ill, their pronunciation was free from the peculiarities of Londoners; the aspirate was properly observed, and the *i* not prolonged. They underwent a very short examination as to the meaning of the words—e.g. *Hypocrites*—Those who seem to be virtuous and are not. *Alms*—Money given for charity. Must alms be money? No; clothes, instruction, advice, may be alms. *Patience*—Enduring a long time—suffering without murmuring. *Charity*—Kindness, goodwill towards men. They answered, too, concerning the nature and history of the Scriptures—e.g. the Pentateuch, the Prophecies, the Gospels, the Acts.

In the mean time, a boy had drawn a pump upon a black board, and questions were put to the class, which they answered correctly. The writer made a note of the following questions, which, at the risk of being wearisome, he enumerates, in order to show the fullness and accuracy of the knowledge imparted to these children. What are the principal mechanical powers? What is a lever? What is the meaning of inflexible? How many levers are there? Give instances of them. What may a screw be resolved into? How do you ascertain the power of an inclined plane? Make a diagram to illustrate this. Then the pump was accurately described; the reason was given why water rises in a vacuum; hence arose a description of the barometer. The pump was converted into a forcing pump; its mode of action was described, and instances given of its application. A syphon was also drawn and explained, and its applications instanced.

How many square yards are there in a field 376 yards wide, by 432 yards long? This question was answered without a slate by many boys far sooner than the writer could work it on paper. What is the cube of 376,432? this was answered in less than a minute; and when the writer expressed his admiration of this and similar feats of mental arithmetic, other boys in the school were mentioned to him, (as indeed had been the case in other subjects,) whose proficiency was still more surprising; these, however, he declined to examine, conceiving that he had already taken the fairest method of testing the value of the methods used in the school.

Four boys drew maps of Asia Minor, and many pointed out by what was on the map, and by dots supplied what was not, the course taken by St. Paul in his journeys. The boys enumerated all the countries they would have to traverse in travelling round the globe, westward from Alexandria. They were then directed to a map of England without names. They pointed out the principal sea-ports, and answered the following questions:—Where is Flintshire? How is it surrounded? Where is Manchester? What is it famous for? Where Berwick? Where York? What great battles were fought in Yorkshire? (This question was put by a monitor.) The answer was—Towton, York, Marston Moor. When and between whom was each of these fought? Here some confusion arose in the boys' minds, which was unravelled by their being asked, who was Margaret of Anjou? They then explained the origin and result of the wars of the Roses, and of the great Rebellion, and fixed the dates of both. They were then asked, and

some answered correctly, the following questions:—Who was William the Conqueror? The date of the battle of Hastings? Who succeeded him? Who was Queen Elizabeth? Whose daughter was she? Who succeeded Henry VIII.? Why did not Queen Elizabeth? What happened in Henry VIII.'s time? Why did James II. abdicate? In the answer to both these questions, the word "Popery" was used. Who was the Duke of Marlborough? In whose reign did he live? What good did his battles do? After a little deliberation the boy answered with a considerable naïveté, "None that I know of, sir." Where did Nelson die? When? Where was Trafalgar? Whom did Napoleon Bonaparte succeed? Here the boys naturally enough were at fault.

How many Greek orders of architecture are there? Mention the parts of a column.

It will be observed that this examination comprises reading, drawing, arithmetic, mechanics, geography, history, botany, morals, religion; and it proves, to the perfect satisfaction of the writer, that the things taught at the Borough Road School are numerous, that they are immediately useful to the boys in the station of life to which they are destined, and are well qualified to raise them from that station to a higher; it proves, too, that the subjects are thoroughly and efficiently taught, well understood, and singularly well retained. All this is done, not only without corporal punishment, but apparently without any punishment, certainly without harshness. The boys flocked about the master, and were uniformly cheerful, open, and respectful in their demeanor.—*Sec. Pub. Cent. Socy.*

SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

Few improvements were ever adopted more eagerly, or carried forward more rapidly, than the plan of employing a part of the Sunday in the education of the poor. Fifty years ago, and the infant poor of this country were wandering about on the Sunday, idle, dirty, ignorant and immoral. The great mass of them are now received into schools, where at least some amount of regular occupation is found, and some instruction is given; where cleanliness and neatness are much cultivated, and where, for the most part, they come under the care of persons who are likely to treat them with kindness, and gradually to acquire an interest in their welfare.

The education given is almost always confined to reading only. There are, however, exceptions to this rule. At the great Stockport Sunday school, for instance, writing and arithmetic are added; and the same is done at two large Sunday schools in Birmingham, containing together about 1300 children. Many Sunday schools, too, have evening schools connected with them, open two or three times a week, in which writing and arithmetic are taught.

We believe that Sunday Schools have produced a very great and very beneficial effect in this country. We happen, however, to be best acquainted with their results in the town of Birmingham, which was one of the first to adopt them, and where Sunday schools have to this day been the principal means of diffusing education.—*Hill.*

FACTORY SCHOOLS.

Most of the factories which are described as being in the best state, as regards the education of the children, and the comfort of the work-people generally, are large factories in rural situations. These appear to combine, in the greatest extent possible, (under present arrangements,) the advantages of concentration and separation. In a town, it is impossible for the proprietor of a factory to do much as an individual towards guarding his work-people from temptation, and securing to them the blessings of pure air and cleanliness. On a broad scale, and with a good system of municipal government, which should make the petty interests of individuals always give way to the great interests of the community, we doubt not that these objects could be as well obtained in a town as in the country; whilst, in other respects, a town offers facilities for the mental and moral improvement, and general happiness of the laboring classes, which are unattainable in a state of insulation.

But it is in the country that the superior condition of the factory population is principally displayed; and I do not believe that any part of England can shew instances of comfort and prosperity surpassed by that which is enjoyed by cotton workers in country districts.

Twelve hundred persons are employed in the factories of Mr. Thomas Ashton at Hyde. This gentleman has erected commodious dwellings for his work-people, with each of which he has connected every convenience that can minister to comfort. He resides in their immediate vicinity, and has frequent opportunities of maintaining a cordial association with his operatives. Their houses are well-furnished, clean, and their tenants exhibit every indication of health and happiness. This gentleman has built a school in which 640 children are instructed on Sundays in reading, writing, and arithmetic, with a library attached to it, where the operatives read after the conclusion of their work. He has also founded an infant school, in which 200 children are educated; and two night schools, where instruction of a superior character is imparted.—*Id.*

ADULT SCHOOLS.

The first attempt to give elementary instruction to adults was made at Bristol in 1812, under the auspices of a society which in 1834 had thirty-six schools under its superintendence, containing 408 men and 268 women. Since its formation, 13,000 persons have been received into its school.

Adult School at Edgbaston near Birmingham. There are now forty members (more than half the laboring population of the parish,) of all ages, from eighteen to seventy. The teaching is confined to reading and writing; but the advantages of the school are not limited to the amount of direct instruction afforded, there being a well conducted benefit society connected with the Institution. The management both of the school and the benefit society is now entirely in the hands of the men themselves; who now also defray the expenses incurred, as those of books, stationery, &c. Dr. Johnstone, the founder, assisting merely with his advice when applied to, and allowing the men the free use of a room in his house.

The school assembles once a week—namely, on Sunday evening; the period of instruction being two hours; but the men often go on with their lessons, at home in the week days. It is found that a man who is quite ignorant of reading will generally acquire sufficient knowledge to enable him to read with pleasure to himself in the course of six months. It may appear somewhat strange that the men are fonder of writing than of reading; in truth, they show wonderful perseverance in plodding through endless copies, from the large text down to the small hand. In many instances, the members of the school have been able to turn their acquirements, small as they are, to very good account. A man who has had the office of permanent overseer of Edgbaston parish for nine years, and has been subsequently appointed parish clerk, made the necessary acquirements entirely in the adult school; at his entrance to which he could neither read nor write. The moral effect of the school has been most satisfactory. During the seventeen years that have elapsed since its opening, there have been only three or four instances of members applying for parochial relief; and these were in the first period of its establishment. One member has even been reclaimed from pauperism. This man, up to the time of his entering the adult school, was a regular burden upon the parish; sometimes living altogether in the work-house, and at others receiving a supply of fuel, bedding, &c. He soon, however, became independent of assistance of every kind, and has now saved money enough to enable his wife to open a small shop. Another man who was once in the habit of frequent intoxication, has become perfectly steady and sober.

In his conversations with the members of the little community, and in the addresses which he delivers from time to time, Dr. Johnstone has endeavored, and with great success, not only to foster a strong social feeling among the men, as members of the same class of society, but he has succeeded in awaking just feelings on their part towards those classes of society which stand above them; showing them how the interests of all are linked together, and how much each class may do to promote the general welfare, while at the same time it is essentially benefiting itself. A striking instance of the good effect produced by these enlightened exertions, was afforded at the time of the incendiary fires, in the winter of 1830. On that occasion, the members of this adult school formed themselves spontaneously into a body for the protection of the property of the neighboring farmers, in case of attack.—*Id.*

MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS, LIBRARIES, &c.

The earliest indications of this class of institutions, was in the "Sunday Society," at Birmingham, previous to 1790. A society for mutual improvement had existed some years previous to this, in which lectures were delivered by its members on several branches of natural philosophy; and many of them being actively engaged in the ingenious trades of Birmingham, had constructed apparatus to illustrate the principles of mechanics, hydrostatics, pneumatics, optics, electricity, and astronomy. The lectures were not always confined to themselves; they were made gratuitously accessible to young persons employed in the manufactories of the town. Both these societies were in 1796 merged in "The Brotherly Society;" the operations were more satisfactorily and systematically carried on than before. Lectures were delivered at certain intervals, classes were formed for drawing, geography, and for the pursuit of those scientific enquiries, in the application of which many of the members were constantly engaged. In 1797, a library for the use of the working classes was established, and called the "Artisans' Library," by which all persons who chose to avail themselves of its advantages were supplied with useful reading at the expense of a penny a week.

The exertions of Dr. Birkbeck while engaged as professor in the Anderson College, Glasgow, are very generally known to those familiar with the early history of Mechanics' Institutions. Similar efforts, but on a very limited scale, had been used by professor Anderson previous to 1796. The more extended views of Dr. Birkbeck were carried into operation at the commencement of the present century, and he had the satisfaction of frequently lecturing to an audience of seven hundred persons anxious to receive his instruction.

tions. The plan was still further developed by Dr. Ure, the successor of Dr. Birkbeck, who added a library to the original design, and under whose judicious care the number of students was still further increased. In 1814, one of the most popular periodicals of that time, "The Monthly Magazine," contained five papers in successive numbers advocating the formation of Literary and Philosophical Societies for the middling and lower classes of the community; in which articles, their advantages, objects and probable results were ably illustrated. It is understood that these papers were written by Dr. Dick, a gentleman whose zeal in the cause of popular education is manifested in his admirable writings. In 1817, Mr. Dugald Bannatyne recommended the general extension of Dr. Birkbeck's plan in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*. In 1821, a "School of Arts" was established at Edinburgh, which immediately met with support and success. Other institutions, on a more limited scale, but of a similar tendency, were formed in various parts of the country; but the greatest impetus which this cause received, was in the year 1823, when the *Mechanics' Magazine*—"the most valuable gift which the hand of science has ever yet offered to the artisan,"—published proposals for a London Mechanics' Institute. In a few months after the "Proposal" was issued, the institution was in active operation in several of its departments.

No individual in this country has done so much to forward the education of the people, and particularly that of the middle and laboring class, as Lord Brougham. The well being of Mechanics' Institutions has always been one of the objects to which his lordship has devoted himself; and perhaps it is greatly owing to the personal sacrifices he has made to promote their welfare, in London, and in all the larger provincial towns, that their success must be attributed.

The London Mechanics' Institution.—The means employed at the London Mechanics' Institution; and at others in the first class towns, have been as follows:

1. A library of reference, a circulating library, and a reading-room.
2. A museum of machines, models, minerals, and natural history.
3. Lectures on natural and experimental philosophy, practical mechanics, astronomy, chemistry, literature and the arts.
4. An experimental workshop and laboratory.
5. Elementary schools, or classes for teaching arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and their different applications, particularly to perspective, architecture, mensuration, and navigation.

The management of the London Mechanics' Institution, is vested in a committee chosen from the members, two-thirds of such committee being working-men. The subscription is 24s. yearly, or 6s. quarterly, and 2s. 6d. entrance; the payments are made in advance. Sons and apprentices of members have the privilege of attending the evening classes, or the lectures, at 3s. a quarter. The sum of 10l. constitutes the donor an honorary member for life. The average number of members for the last three years has exceeded 1,000; 900 attend the lectures on an average, and upwards of 300 attend the classes, but none are allowed to attend either lectures or schools without having paid their subscriptions. The library is for circulation, and contains about 6,000 volumes, treating of every branch of science and general literature; the more important Reviews and Magazines are also procured. The reading-room is open from nine in the morning till ten in the evening, but there is not much reading during the usual hours of business. Six daily newspapers are supplied to the reading room. Public lectures on the various branches of experimental philosophy, chemistry, the fine arts, &c., are delivered in the theatre of the institution every Wednesday and Friday evenings, commencing at half past eight o'clock. The lecturers are paid about 3l. 13s. 6d. each, for every night when they do not find any of the apparatus. The classes are for teaching English grammar, writing, arithmetic, practical geometry, drawing, (architectural, mechanical, ornamental, the human figure, landscape,) modelling, the French language, the Latin language, and short-hand occasionally. Of the 300 students who attend these classes, it may be mentioned that above 100 are connected with the various drawing classes. There is a class for mutual instruction, containing 120 members, where the following subjects are studied; literary composition, chemistry, experimental philosophy, geography, natural history, and phrenology; also a class for the study and practice of music, the teachers of which are paid, containing ninety members. The museum contains numerous mineralogical and geological specimens, and suitable apparatus for illustrating the mechanical and chemical sciences. The amount laid out in apparatus is about 300l. The theatre holds upwards of 1,000 persons, and including land, cost 5,000l. The rent paid for the house is 220l. per annum. The lectures continue throughout the year; the classes attend from 8 to 10 in the evening. The average annual receipts during the last three years have been 1640l.

Manchester Institution. The object of this institution, as expressed in its publications, is to enable mechanics and artisans, of whatever trade they may be, to become acquainted with such branches

of science and art as are of practical application in the exercise of that trade; and as there is no art which does not depend more or less on scientific principles,—to teach what these are, and to point out their practical application, form the chief objects of the institution. The means called into operation for the accomplishment of these results are lectures, classes, a library, a reading-room, and preparatory schools. The lectures, which are either paid for from the funds, or gratuitous, are on Monday and Friday evenings; and are on natural philosophy, natural history, literature and the useful arts.

The several classes are for instruction in writing, grammar, elocution and composition, arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, architectural drawing and mechanical drawing. There are other classes, for which additional payments are required. The figure, landscape, and flower-drawing class may be entered for an admission fee of five shillings; a gymnasium is also open to members for a similar fee. Five shillings a year is required for admission to the geography class. The class for vocal music, French, Latin, German, and chemistry, each require an additional payment of five shillings a quarter. There is also a mutual improvement society, which consists of nearly a hundred members, and to which those persons are admissible who have been members of the institution three months, provided they are not under eighteen years of age. To this society an entrance fee of two shillings is paid; its object is to facilitate the acquisition of useful knowledge, and to promote social intercourse among its members; it meets once a fortnight, when one of the members reads a paper on some subject of interest which has occupied his attention, and it is followed by general conversation on that subject. The admission of pupils into the classes is in the order of their application; and in case of non-attendance within fifteen days after admission, such admission is cancelled. The number of pupils in every class is limited at the discretion of the teacher, subject to the approval of the directors. Any pupil who is absent during four successive lessons forfeits his right of attending the class unless he can give satisfactory reasons for such absence; but he may have his name placed at the end of the list of candidates for admission. Every pupil has to provide himself with the requisite books, instruments, and materials. No drawing executed in any class is allowed to be finally taken home by the pupil, until it has been inspected by the directors, and every pupil is expected to affix his name to the drawing, as well as the dates of its commencement and completion. The vacations are a week at Whitsuntide, a fortnight at Midsummer, and a fortnight at Christmas. The teachers make a weekly report of the attendance of their pupils; and, on or before the 15th of January, an annual report in writing, addressed to the directors, of the classes under their charge; they also keep severally an exact statement of the names and attendance of their pupils; which statement is examined by the proper officer once in every quarter, that it may be ascertained that the necessary subscriptions have been paid. The teachers have to refer to the directors in all cases of doubt or difficulty not provided for in these regulations. With regard to the extra drawing class and the gymnasium, the admission fee only entitles the subscriber to these advantages so long as his subscription to the institution is regularly paid. Should this subscription be discontinued for a single quarter, another fee of five shillings must be paid before he can be re-admitted to the class.

The library contains about four thousand volumes, which for the most part are judiciously selected, and consist of the greater number of the useful works on theoretical, practical, and applied science of recent date, and numerous other works on similar subjects of more ancient standing and of the highest character; many works on topography, geography, travels, and other departments of history; some of the best translations from the ancient classics, a store of English literature, and a selection of periodical publications; the latter are confined to the reading-room for a limited time, and then circulate.

The day schools for the children of subscribers and others, is an object of primary importance with the managers and friends of this institution; and it is one of the most interesting features of such an establishment. The parents are, to a certain extent, taking the education of their offspring into their own hands; and as such parents are persons of intelligence, who are frequently in communication with the well educated,—themselves partially trained in a higher department of the same institution,—themselves feeling and recognizing the advantages of knowledge and the curse of ignorance,—and themselves exercising a silent, but an effective part in the management of the school,—it may be expected that the system, not only in its general features, but in detail, shall be one admirably adapted for the diffusion of sound elementary knowledge among the children of the working classes, and one that shall prepare them for enjoying in their fullest extent all the higher advantages which the institution is capable of conferring on its members. The day-schools of this society are already, even in their infancy, distinguished from other public seminaries by the superior attention which is given to the advancement of the pupils. In the Report of the Man-

chester Statistical Society, the schools are spoken of with high praise. The plan on which they are conducted is that of the Edinburgh Sessional School. The boys' school was established in 1834; and that for the girls in the following year. They are intended, in the first place, for the sons and daughters, and brothers and sisters, of subscribers to the Mechanics Institution, who pay four shilling a quarter for instruction; and, in the second place, for the children of non-subscribers, on payment of five shillings a quarter. The boys are instructed in reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, geography, history, &c.; the girls in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, sewing, and knitting. The boys are limited by the size of the room to two hundred and thirty, and the girls to one hundred and ten; and these numbers are steadily maintained. The payments received from the pupils appear to have been much more than sufficient to defray the ordinary expenses of the school. There is a public examination of the pupils every week; and an admirably selected juvenile library is attached to the school for the use of the pupils.

IGNORANCE AND CRIME.

The following are the degrees of instruction of every 100 criminals in 1836, 1837 and 1838:

	1836.	1837.	1838.
Wholly uninstructed, or having received only the first rudiments of learning,	85.85	87.93	87.81
Able to read and write well,	10.56	9.46	8.77
Instructed beyond reading and writing,	0.91	0.43	0.34
Intellectual condition not known,	2.68	2.18	2.08
	100	100	100

The chaplain of the gaol at Lancaster says, in his report of 1838:

Five hundred and sixteen prisoners were quite ignorant of the simplest truths; 995 prisoners were capable of repeating the Lord's Prayer; 37 prisoners were occasional readers of the Bible; only 7 were familiar with the Holy Scriptures, and conversant with the principles of religion. Among the 516 entirely ignorant, 124 were capable of repeating the Lord's Prayer. This last table corresponds in its general features with that of last year; and I can add little to the observations which I then made upon the subject of ignorance in religion, unless it be to state that very few of the whole 1,129 persons—probably not more than 20 or 30—have habitually attended any place of divine worship.

The Report of the Chaplain respecting the prisoners of the county gaol at Bedford in 1838, states, "that their great leading characteristic was ignorance, heathenish ignorance of the simplest truths." At Midsummer Quarter Session, he reported that, "as to the condition, mentally and morally, of his unhappy charge, he regretted to say it could scarcely be more ignorant or degraded. It was his conviction that no pen could depict in colors sufficiently dark, the moral and spiritual ignorance and debasement of the vastly greater number of those unhappy beings who pass through the prisons."

Respecting the county gaol of Hertford, the Visiting Magistrates report, "The school-master has been regular and diligent in discharging the duties of his office. During the year, there have been 72 discharged, exclusive of those who did not fall under his notice and instruction, of whom 30 had been taught to read the Psalms and New Testament imperfectly, or so far to improve themselves as to read well. Of the rest, some have progressed to a knowledge of most words of two syllables, and the remainder were totally ignorant, the short periods of their imprisonment not admitting of improvement."

The Chaplain of the county gaol in Warwick reports of the prisoners in 1836:—"Their condition as regards education is this; of every twenty-four who are committed, on an average seven have been taught to read and write; eight can read only; and nine can do neither; most of those who can write can read tolerably well, though their writing is generally a very poor performance; but at least the half of those who can read only, do it very badly. With regard to those important parts of education, religion and morality, generally speaking, no instruction whatever appears to have been given to them; for in the vast majority of instances, the persons who come to prison are utterly ignorant, both of the simplest truths of religion and of the plainest precepts of morality. Further, it seldom happens that any effort has been made to bring the reasoning faculties into healthy exercise; and the mind, being thus left blank, as far as regards every thing that is good, it ceases to be a wonder that evil principles should so readily be adopted. Indeed, where such a miserable system of education is found, as appears to prevail in many places, it were much better that nothing were attempted; for people appear to learn only just sufficient to render ignorance conceited, and to supply them with fresh incentives to vice. As far as regards religious worship, it is very true that at some period of their lives most of the prisoners have attended a place of worship of some denomination, but very few have been taught to consider this as an imperative duty, but rather as a matter of indifference, which perhaps it may be better to do than leave undone. The expense of the penal administration for the prevention,

detection and punishment of crime in England and Wales, amounts to 1,213,082*l.*, and the number of juvenile offenders in the prisons last year was 12,000.

The following information is given in a report of the British and Foreign School Society for 1831, respecting the participants in the agricultural riots of that year.

Of 138 prisoners committed to Reading gaol, 25 only could write, 37 only could read, and 76 could neither read nor write; 120 were under 40 years of age, varying from 35 down to 18 years. Of the 30 prisoners tried at Abingdon, 6 only could read and write, 11 could read imperfectly; the remainder were wholly uneducated. Of the 79 prisoners convicted at Aylesbury, only 30 could read and write. Of 332 committed for trial at Winchester, 105 could neither read nor write; nearly the whole number were deplorably ignorant of even the rudiments of religious knowledge. About one half of the prisoners committed to Maidstone gaol, could neither read nor write.

DEFECTS OF POPULAR EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

As the present condition of popular education in England is full of interest and instruction, we subjoin a few extracts from recent publications on the subject.

But we come to the question what is the *nature* of the education of the humbler classes, which is extending in England, and which has been so long established in Scotland? Is it of a kind to impart useful, practical knowledge for resource in life—does it communicate to the pupil any light upon the important subject of his own nature and place in creation, on the conditions of his physical welfare, and his intellectual and moral happiness;—does it, above all, make an attempt to regulate his passions, and train and exercise his moral feelings, to prevent his prejudices, suspicions, envying, self-conceit, vanity, impracticability, destructiveness, cruelty, and sensuality? Alas! no. It teaches him to READ, WRITE, and CYPER, and leaves him to pick up all the rest, as he may! It forms an instructive example of the sedative effect of established habits of thinking, that our ancestors and ourselves have so contentedly held this to be education, or the shadow of it for any rank of society! Reading, writing, and cyphering are mere instruments; when attained, as they rarely or never are, after all, by the working classes, to a reasonable perfection, they leave the pupil exactly in the situation where he would find himself, were we to put tools into his hands, the use of which, however, he must learn as he may. We know well, that he will be much more likely to misapply his tools, and to cut himself with them than to use them aright. So it is with his reading; for really any writing and accounting of this class, even the most respectable of them, scarcely deserve the name, and may be here put out of the account. Reading consists in the recognition of printed characters, arranged into syllables and words. With this most abstract accomplishment may co-exist unregulated propensities, selfish passions, sensual appetites, filthy and intemperate habits, profound intellectual darkness and moral debasement, all adhering to a man as closely after as before he could read; and be it remarked, these qualities would give their bias to his future voluntary reading, and assuredly degrade and vitiate his character; it will tend to strengthen his prejudices, deepen his superstitions, flatter his passions, and excite his animal appetites. Well is all this known to the agitator, the quack, and the corrupter. They know that the manual laborer can read; but they know as well, that he is incapable of thinking or detecting their impositions, if they only flatter his passions. No just views of life have ever been given him, no practical knowledge of his actual position in the social system. We are always told that the majority of criminals cannot read, as if the mere faculty of reading would have diminished the number of criminals. This is a great delusion.—For these reasons, mere reading might have increased the number of criminals, it would be quite ineffective in diminishing them. But if the investigation had gone the length as ascertaining with which of the criminals had an attempt at moral training and useful knowledge ever been made, we should have found that column of the table a blank, and something like cause and effect would begin to dawn upon us. It is needless to pursue so obvious a matter further. If a national system of education is to stop at reading, writing, and cyphering, it would save much trouble and after disappointment, not to attempt it at all.—*Simpson.*

Extracts from the Mirror of Parliament, giving the debate in the House of Commons in June, and of the House of Lords in July, 1839, on the ministerial plan of National Education.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

MR. THOMAS WYSE:—

The evils of want of education in the elements of science, in matters of every-day life, and in the pursuits of industry, are hourly experienced. For instance, it is scarcely possible to enter upon any investigation in connexion with agriculture, without finding it connected, more or less with the doctrines and elucidations derived from chemistry; and yet, in the agricultural districts, we find little knowledge of the first principles of chemistry—of all those grand discoveries which have been the wonder and admiration of the world; and for want of such knowledge, we find it stated in the most able agricultural reports, that by the injudicious use of lime, many thousands of acres in various parts of the kingdom, which would have been fertile, have been reduced to a state of almost total unproductiveness and sterility.

Let us look through the towns. There we find the grossest ignorance of the first principles of the preservation of health, such as ventilation and cleanliness; we find the most unwholesome employments and habits persisted in; and such is the intensity of the ignorance of the people, that when means have been proposed for ameliorating their condition, they have been not only opposed and rejected, but with feelings of animosity and ridicule against the philanthropist who has had courage and humanity enough to interfere. And then the deficiency of knowledge that prevails in the application of the elements of art to manufactures, is strikingly obvious, when the productions in several branches of industry are contrasted with those of the schools of Lyons and Berlin. The inferiority of our population is not less striking as regards the social condition of the lower classes. Taking the whole of the working population of Manchester, 20 per cent. lived in cellars, or in round numbers, 31,000 persons so resided out of a population of 230,000. A Report on this subject states:

That the great proportion of the inhabited cells were dark, damp, confined, ill ventilated, and dirty. The numbers residing in each cellar varied from four to seventeen. As in many (perhaps in the majority of cases) there are only two beds to a family of five or six persons of both sexes, the inconveniences and evils which must arise from this deficiency of accommodation are too obvious to require further remark.

The evils of the want of education are manifest when the moral and religious condition of the people is regarded. On this point I would refer to the evidence that was given as to the classes who were generally the inmates of prisons and houses of correction—

That two thirds of the youth in Gloucester gaol were the most ignorant of society. There were at present on the treadmill of that place, 120 men who had been convicted of small felonies; five out of six were under twenty years of age; nine out of every ten could not read a single word.

It appears from returns, that in 1837, not less than 20,000 persons were tried for offences in England and Wales, and that 15,000 were convicted, while the number of criminal commitments to gaol are 100,000 annually. It is also stated, in a report, that there are 6000 thieves at large in the metropolis, and within the metropolitan police districts there are 10,666 depredators.

If we recur to the recent lamentable occurrences in the county of Kent, we shall find that Bible reading—instead of being necessary—instead of being a security to the country for the good conduct of the people—is, if unaccompanied by proper instruction and general education, productive of evil rather than good. Look at the state of those parishes in which the ignorant impostor Thom had obtained so many followers,—namely, Herne Hill, Dunkirk, and Boughton. The inhabitants of those villages were induced to believe that Thom was the Saviour and Redeemer, and to imagine that disobedience of his mandates would entail on them eternal damnation. It appeared that he gave them the sacrament, anointed himself and them with oil, and told them that no bullet could touch them. He showed them the marks of the nails; and assured them, if they doubted that, he should call them to judgment. He threatened, also, to rain fire and brimstone on them, if they left him, and at the same time blessed the little children that were brought to him. This was in the midst of a beautiful country, in which there was no hostility to the poor laws, where the peasantry had good wages, and where the poor rates were comparatively low. Yes, Sir, the populace received these fanatical doctrines, and exhibited these deplorable proofs of superstition and barbarism, even under the very spires of Canterbury cathedral,—a district thronged with ecclesiastics; and all these deluded and ignorant people were possessed of a Bible and Testament, but no other books, nor any means for obtaining a liberal education. The state of education in these districts, I believe, is as follows:—At Herne Hill there are 51 families, in

which there are 45 above the age of 14; and of them 11 can read and write, and 21 can do so very imperfectly, and the remainder not at all. There are 117 children under that age; and of these, 42 are at school; most of them make little or no progress, and they are generally taken away, at an early period, by their parents. In Dunkirk, there are 113 children; 10 of them can read and write, 13 can do so a little, and the remainder cannot do so at all. In Boughton there are 119 children under the age of 14, and 32 attend school. Only 7 attend school where writing is taught; the remainder only go to a Sunday-school. But it is not to these districts in Kent that the evil is confined. There is a similar general defect of education throughout the country. Thus, in seventeen of the chief towns in the county of York, the average of those who receive daily instruction is only 1 in 12; while in Manchester the proportion is only 1 in 35,—while, according to the conclusion I have arrived at, it ought to be 1 in 8.

The evils that result from this defect of general education for the people, are obvious in the extent to which numerous depredations, petty thefts, and misdemeanors are carried; and these are, often, to such an extent as to put a stop to cultivation and trading, in many places. In 1826, 700,000*l.* were lost in Liverpool by depredations. The causes of this state of things do not arise from want. One of the chief causes is the want of steadiness in early occupations; for the want of this is one of the most powerful temptations to a career of crime, instead of a career of industry. The effects of prisons on early delinquents is most striking. Mr. Chesterton, the governor of Coldbath Fields Prison, stated, that nearly in almost all cases of juvenile offences, there was an ignorance of religion which amounted to almost perfect heathenism.

MR. C. BULLER:—

It is with deep alarm that I take a view of the present condition of our laboring, manufacturing, and agricultural classes. Sir, when I look upon the precariousness of their condition, and the deep and dark gulf which separates them from their superiors in fortune,—when I look to our ignorance of their influence on society, and to the slight hold which we have on their affections,—it is with unfeigned terror that I observe the wild passions by which they are swayed, and the dense ignorance under which they labor. Look at a great portion of them, immersed in the most lamentable ignorance, and spending in the lowest and most profligate debauchery the few hours they can steal from their daily employment. Among another and yet wider class we may observe the spread of thought yet more pernicious, and the intercourse of sympathies yet more menacing. Sometimes the murmur of their discontent and ignorance assumes an articulate form, and speaks in the accents of the disciples of Thom, the followers of Stephens, and the millions whose creed is Chartistism; for such are the instructors to whom you leave the minds of the people.

Some learn their religion from a lunatic, in whose resurrection they believe; others are taught that every man has a right to what wages he thinks reasonable, and that he may enforce his right by the dagger and the torch. Others are told that rents and profits are fraudulent deductions from wages; and consequently, believe that the owners of land and capital are the plunderers and oppressors of the workmen. These doctrines advance, unencountered by the morality or the simple political reasoning which would dispel their influence. This bad instruction is allowed to be the only instruction of the poor; while you, the enlightened rulers of this country, whose property and lives will be the first victims of these terrible delusions of the masses, spend in a squabble about creeds the precious time which is rapidly bearing us on to the dark catastrophe of your culpable folly and neglect. And when the Government—the last of civilized governments—awakes from its torpid neglect of the minds of the people, and proposes, at length, to send the school master among these dangerous yet teachable masses;—then comes forward the noble lord, and the church, and the aristocracy, and the great conservative party, arrayed in all the panoply of bigotry, and bar its passage with the Thirty-nine Articles.

MR. SHELL:—

Has the noble Lord ever been in that part of this vast metropolis in which Irish emigration is chiefly deposited? Has he ever traversed that melancholy district in which, at every step, the eye, the ear, the heart—every physical and moral sense—is shocked? Has he ever looked down into those recesses, in which hordes of miserable children are accumulated in heaps of wretchedness? or, has he ever looked up to the dwellings which swarm with diseased vitality, and through sashless windows seen the face of squalid, emaciated, vacant childhood staring with the glare of ignorance and misery upon him? If he were to observe, and become familiar with such spectacles, his over-righteous habits would give way; his natural emotions would get the better of true religion, which is identified with his prejudices, and he would feel that charity and with mercy requires, that, for the instruction of those unfortunate creatures, something on the part of the Legislature is imperatively required.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

MARQUIS OF LANSDOWNE:

With respect to the agricultural districts, it was only accidentally that their peculiar condition was opened up, and the extent of ignorance, and of bad habits engendered by ignorance, among the rural population, was laid bare. Scarce a year has elapsed, since, in a part of the country near London, where schools are supposed to exist, or are described as existing in the Returns,—within the reach of those influences which might be expected to be most salutary,—I mean the county of Kent; there has been an exhibition of folly, of credulity, of the absence of all instruction, of ignorance of all true religion, exposing the peasantry to be the ready dupes of one of most absurd and wild fanatics who ever sought to practice on the ignorance of a people. I need scarcely remind your Lordships that in a part of the country where a certain portion of the inhabitants are receiving an imperfect education, this person, whom you will all recollect by the name of Thom, succeeded, in the course of a short time, in inducing the people to receive him, first, in the character of Mr. Oastler; next, in that of the king of Jerusalem; then, in that of the earl of Devon; and, finally, I am sorry to say, in that of the Saviour of mankind, whom he was fully believed to be by the inhabitants generally. So little did the imperfect system of education which existed in that district contribute to check the influence and authority of this individual, that of the few day schools which existed there, one was kept by a man who was enrolled among his most devoted followers, and afterwards by the wife of a person who was also his follower; and another was kept by the wife of a man who likewise followed his flag. It is vain to indulge in the opinion that such a state of things is peculiar, and that there are not many of the agricultural districts in which the inhabitants are quite as ignorant, and liable to be deluded. There are many parts which fell under my own observation, where nothing is wanting but the appearance of another Thom, or some such daring fanatic, to call forth a similar display of credulity. If, my Lords, such is the state of the agricultural districts, with how much more of apprehension do I turn to the spectacle presented by those great masses of manufacturing laborers, whom it is the nature of our social system to accumulate in towns, but for whom, unhappily, it has not yet been one of the objects of that system to provide any instruction. Great attention has been paid to the subject by individuals in the great towns of Manchester, Liverpool, York, and in the towns of the North of England generally. An incredible mass of ignorance has been revealed, unmitigated by even the most narrow and pitiful measure of instruction, and such as, surely, the most desponding person could not have previously dared to conceive! In four or five of these manufacturing towns, only, there are at this moment 80,000 children growing up without receiving the shadow of education. In Manchester, and several of the surrounding places, the proportion of persons who can either read or write is only one-fourth, the remainder being in that condition of hopeless ignorance which ever prepares the way for those terrible outbursts of passion that shake the whole fabric of society. The events of the last two years contain fearful intimations of the temper of these masses of uneducated men. Your Lordships have witnessed what havoc the pent-up winds are capable of working, when any accident lets them loose from their dark caverns, to confound the peace and order of society, and to subvert the whole condition and healthy working of the state. When the abyss is sounded, the depths of ignorance are found to be such as I have described them; and there is but too much reason to fear that the mighty array of physical force may not always remain in a state of inert slumber, but may awake to convulse society and scatter terror and disaster over the land.

BISHOP OF LONDON:

Education involves the best and dearest interests of the people of this country: prosperity and happiness so much depend upon it, social order is so much connected with it, that it is necessarily a great state question. Looking only to the duty of every government; a duty too much neglected, and from the reproach for which not even the government of this country, past or present, is exempt; of preventing crime, and of obviating by every possible means the necessity of inflicting punishment, it is a most important subject. A good education—and by that I mean such an education as admits religious instruction—is the best and the cheapest police; and I do not hesitate to say, that if one-tenth of the amount laid out in the building of gaols for the last fifty years, had been expended fifty years ago in the erecting of schools, it would have gone a great way to save the other nine-tenths.

The plan was defeated, but it is regarded as a presage of no little importance, that the subject has for the first time become a government question, and enlisted a protracted discussion. It has called forth much earnest and eloquent writing in Pamphlets and Reviews.

The following extracts are from a letter of Lord Brougham to the Duke of Bedford:

Let us come to the more commonplace topic of the Gaol Roll, the Assize Calendar. I pretend to prove that, without waiting for the comparatively slow progress of general improvement by the operation of knowledge universally diffused, six or seven years would not elapse before every prison, and every circuit, and every session in the country felt the blessed effects of infant schools, if the state did its duty, and took that effectual, that only effectual mode of preventing crime, instead of vainly trusting to the gibbet, the convict ship, and the hulks, for deterring by the force of example; that feeble, because misapplied force, which operates only on the mind at a moment when the passions are still, and has no more power to quell their tempest, than the rudder has to guide the ship through a hurricane which has torn every sail to rags. If infant schools were planted for the training of all children between three and seven years of age, so as to impress them with innocent and virtuous habits, their second natures thus superinduced, would make it as impossible to pervert them, as it is to make men and women of the upper classes rush into the highways each time they feel the want of money.

It is certain, that as things now stand, the two great parties into which the community is unhappily split upon this mighty question, are resolved that we should have no system of education at all; no national plan for training teachers, and thereby making the schools that stud the country all over, deserve the name they bear; no national plan for training young children to virtuous habits, and thereby rooting out crimes from the land. And this interdict, under which both parties join in laying their country, is by each pronounced to be necessary for the sacred interests of religion. Of religion! Oh, gracious God! Was ever the name of thy holy ordinances so impiously profaned before? Was ever before, thy best gift to man, his reason, so bewildered by blind bigotry, or savage intolerance, or wild fanaticism; bewildered so as to curse the very light thou hast caused to shine before his steps; bewildered so as not to perceive that any and every religion must flourish best in the tutored mind, and that by whomsoever instructed in secular things, thy word can better be sown in a soil prepared, than in one abandoned through neglect to the execrable influence of the evil spirit.

I have no great fear for this increasing the influence of the church, I mean, any undue influence at which she may be supposed to aim. Assuredly if she is wrong in her doctrines, if she affects a power she is justly entitled to, the better the people are taught, the more chance there is of them both emancipating themselves from the trammels of false doctrine, and shaking off the weight of undue political influence. Let the people be taught, say I. I care little, in comparison, who is to teach them. Let the grand machine of national education be framed and set to work, and I should even view without alarm the tendency of its first movements towards giving help to the power of the clergy. How? Just as my friend James Watt, when he has constructed some noble steam engine, which is to bear the trade of England, and with her trade, the lights of science and helps of art, into the heart of a distant continent, views without discomposure the piston-rod swerve from the perpendicular, well assured that the contrary flexure of the circles, his illustrious father's exquisite invention, has provided a speedy adjustment; and sees with still less apprehension the divergency of the balls, aware that the yet more refined provision of the same great mind has rendered that very centrifugal force the cause of its own counteraction, and prepared a remedy in exact proportion to the disturbance; just so should I see unmoved the supposed tendency of a national school bill to increase clerical ascendancy, being quite sure that the very act of spreading knowledge, which seems to increase the disturbing influence, must, in exact proportion to its own operation, control its evil effects upon our social system.

'Oh, but we will go on planting schools as we have done, by the exertions of private beneficence.' That is the sound, the plausible sound, which I hear echoed from many respectable quarters. Far, very far from me, be the idea of underrating those admirable, I will say, those truly glorious efforts; the more especially because I well know, that in the very parts of the country where ignorance most prevails, no little exertion is required to make the poor avail themselves of the means of instruction which are actually provided; and that consequently, the best plan we can devise must still lean a good deal upon voluntary and individual help for its successful working. My bill has been expressly framed in great part upon the admission of this principle. But I also know full well, that the resources of private bounty are precarious, and are local; that in the great towns, where the want of education is the greatest, they are the most inadequate; that they impose a burthen most unequal, most unfair in its pressure, taxing severely the worthy and generous poor, while the churlish rich oftentimes escape. I know full well that voluntary exertions are of necessity made at an enormous expense compared with the good they accomplish, because experience must be purchased by the costs of failure through ignorance.

or unskilfulness; and the expertness that has been acquired in one place cannot, for want of system, indeed for want of communication, be made available to any other. I know full well, that in many parts of the country, schools established twenty years ago are now gone to decay; that the death of an individual, the quarrel of two families, the splitting of a committee, a hundred other accidents, have extinguished many seminaries, and may every day destroy more. I know full well, that in hardly any schools are the best methods of teaching adopted, or the proper branches of knowledge taught; while in very many the incapacity of the instructors and the neglect of the pupils is such, as to leave no pretext for calling the operation which is carried on within their walls, by so respectable a name as education. Above all, I know that nothing like a provision has been any where made for infant training, by far the most essential branch of tuition; the one to provide which is the duty of our rulers, above every other duty imperative upon them, and which, if they discharge not, they forfeit their title to rule.

But if they have not discharged that duty, if they have planted no schools where the habits of virtue may be induced, stretched forth no hand to extirpate the germs of vice, they have kept open other schools where vice is taught with never-failing success, used both hands incessantly to stifle the seeds of virtue ere yet they had time to sprout, laid down many a hot-bed where the growth of crime in all its rank luxuriance is assiduously forced. *The infant school languishes*, which a paternal government would have cherished; but Newgate flourishes; Newgate, with her thousand cells to corrupt their youthful inmates; seducing the guiltless, confirming the depraved. The infant school is closed, which a paternal government would have opened wide to all its children. But the penitentiary day and night yawns to engulf the victims of our stepmother system; the penitentiary where repentance and penance should rather be performed by the real authors of their fall. The infant school receives no innocents whom it might train or might hold fast to natural virtue; but the utterly execrable, the altogether abominable Hulk, lies moored in the face of the day which it darkens, within sight of the land which it insults, riding on the waters which it stains with every unnatural excess of infernal pollution, triumphant over all morals! And shall civilized, shall free, shall Christian rulers, any longer pause, any more hesitate, before they amend their ways, and attempt, though late, yet seriously, to discharge the first of their duties?

THOMAS CARLYLE.

The following extracts are from "Chartism," by Thomas Carlyle, one of the most profound thinkers and eloquent writers of the age. It is an encouraging fact, that such minds are now enlisted on the side of popular education.

Who would suppose that education were a thing which had to be advocated on the ground of local expediency, or indeed on any ground? As if it stood not on the basis of everlasting duty, as a prime necessity of man. It is a thing that should need no advocating; much as it does actually need. To impart the gift of thinking to those who cannot think, and yet who could in that case think; this, one would imagine, was the first function a government had to set about discharging. Were it not a cruel thing to see, in any province of an empire, the inhabitants living all mutilated in their limbs, each strong man with his right arm lamed? How much crueler to find the strong soul, with its eyes still sealed, its eyes extinct, so that it sees not! Light has come into the world, but to this poor peasant, it has come in vain. For six thousand years, the sons of Adam, in sleepless effort, have been devising, doing, discovering, in mysterious, infinite indissoluble communion, warring, a little band of brothers, against the great black empire of Necessity and Night; they have accomplished such a conquest and conquests; and to this man it is all as if it had not been. The four and twenty letters of the alphabet are still Runic enigmas to him. He passes by on the other side; and that great spiritual kingdom, the toil-worn conquest of his own brothers, all that his brothers have conquered, is a thing non-existent for him; an invisible empire; he knows it not; suspects it not. And is it not his withal; the conquest of his own brothers, the lawfully acquired possession of all men? Bateful enchantment lies over him from generation to generation; he knows not that such an empire is his, that such an empire is at all? O, what are bills of rights, emancipations of black slaves into black apprentices, lawsuits in chancery for some short usufruct of a bit of land? The grand 'seedfield of time' is this man's, and you give it him not. Time's seedfield, which includes the earth and all her seed-fields and pearl-oceans, nay her sowers too and pearl-divers, all that was wise and heroic and victorious here below; of which the earth's centuries are but furrows, for it stretches forth from the beginning onward even unto this day!

"My inheritance, how lordly, wide and fair;
Time is my fair seedfield, to time I'm heir!"

Heavier wrong is not done under the sun. It lasts from year to year, from century to century: the blinded sire slaves himself out, and leaves a blinded son; and men, made in the image of God, continue as two

legged beasts of labor; and in the largest empire of the world, it is a debate whether a small fraction of the revenue of one day (30,000*l.* is but that) shall, after thirteen centuries, be laid out on it, or not laid out on it. But quitting all that, of which the human soul cannot well speak in terms of civility, let us observe now, that education is not only an eternal duty, but has at length become even a temporary and ephemeral one, which the necessities of the hour will oblige us to look after. These twenty-four million laboring men, if their affairs remain unregulated, chaotic, will burn ricks and mills; reduce us, themselves and the world, into ashes and ruin. Simply, their affairs cannot remain unregulated, chaotic; but must be regulated, brought into some kind of order.

HENRY DUNN.

That the existing provision for popular instruction is deficient in quantity, and in too many cases, still more defective in quality, must be admitted by all who are acquainted with the actual state of the country. The intellectual condition of the agricultural districts has been well described by a powerful and original writer as "a gloomy monotony;—death without his dance." Shut out from every thing that can sustain or ennoble an intelligent nature, the peasantry of England have long since displayed, in unparalleled degradation, the full effects of knowledge denied, and have now sunk into a state of mental inanition and semi-barbarism, from which, it is to be feared, the present generation can never be recovered. Rude, selfish, superstitious and profane;—their sense of right and wrong limited and often perverted; insensible to enjoyments of a higher order than those which arise from the grosser forms of sensual gratification; and scarcely ever looking beyond the apparent interests of the present hour, the great mass live and die without an effort to raise themselves above the lowest conditions of animal existence.

In the towns a different state of things prevails, yet one scarcely less to be lamented, and probably more perilous to the peace of the community. The bulk of the laborers still remain in utter and hopeless ignorance; while the better class of artisans, only partially enlightened, are seldom found capable of enjoying a scientific lecture, a useful book, or a calm political disquisition.—*National Education.*

WALES.

We possess but little information of a precise kind, respecting the state of education in Wales. We believe, however, that it is at a low ebb. We are indebted to a friend at Neath in Glamorganshire, for the following particulars respecting the state of education in that district, and this is all we are prepared to lay before our readers:—

"I cannot venture to speak as to the progress of education in Wales generally. In this district, I may safely say, nearly the whole of the rising population are receiving instruction of some kind, either weekly at the National and Lancastrian schools, or at the Sunday schools of the various dissenting chapels. The extent of the education to the working classes in the Sunday schools, is confined to reading, principally in the Bible; in many instances, in the Welsh language. In the charity schools, reading, writing, and arithmetic, (as far as the rule of three,) are taught to the boys; to the girls, reading and writing. Of the adult male population in our district, of twenty-five to thirty years of age, at least three-fourths are able to read with sufficient ease to enjoy what they read; the remaining fourth part may be able to read with difficulty. Among the laboring class, few read, excepting on a Sunday, and their reading is nearly confined to theological subjects. The class immediately above laborers,—mechanics and working tradesmen,—enjoy more varied reading, and are purchasers of cheap periodicals to a larger extent than might be supposed. Almost all the elderly persons in the lower classes, both laborers and mechanics, are unable to write, and many to read. Very few also of the women retain or practise the learning acquired at school. I think, however, I can observe a great desire in all classes, to have their children educated in the best mode within their reach, and to allow the children to remain to a later period at the schools than was formerly the practice; they are also without difficulty, induced to contribute a small weekly payment. The people in this district are much more civilized than they were twenty years ago. Street-fighting, brutal behavior, and bad habits generally which then existed in full force, are now nearly extinct. The general condition of the people is improved. Crime of any atrocity, is of very rare occurrence: riots and incendiarism occasionally exist in the iron districts, but are unknown here. Drunkenness and superstition we have in full vigor; the latter, however, is giving way in very many instances; the former is quite the vice of the lower classes, and the fruitful source of misery to them.—Habits of truth and of good principles want much to be introduced into the systems of education for the lower classes, as well as for the higher classes. Our charity schools do not sufficiently inculcate the moral virtues."—*Hill.*

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

EXTRACTS FROM PRESIDENT BACHE'S REPORT ON EDUCATION IN EUROPE;

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

The system of primary instruction in Holland is particularly interesting to an American, from its organization in an ascending series; beginning with the local school authorities, and terminating, after progressive degrees of representation, as it were, in the highest authority; instead of emanating, as in the centralized systems, from that authority. A fair trial has been given to a system of inspection which is almost entirely applicable to our country, and which has succeeded with them. They have tried an important experiment, in communicating religious without sectarian instruction; another, which has resulted in demonstrating the necessity of special schools for teachers; and another, entirely unfavourable to the system of mutual instruction. I have enlarged, therefore, upon the general account of their system of public instruction, and have given rather a general notice of the schools, than of any one in particular. I have, however, made one of the schools for the poor, which seemed to me superior even to those of the same class in Prussia, the subject of special description and remark.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Among the primary schools of Holland, are some of the best which I visited, and the whole condition of popular instruction is worthy of a nation which has ever been distinguished for its virtue and intelligence.

The primary instruction of Holland began to receive its present form at the close of the last century, and chiefly by the instrumentality of the "Society for Public Utility," the branches of which extended throughout the country. This society established model schools where they were required, published cheap text-books, excited discussions on methods of teaching, and stimulated the local authorities and others to the establishment of new schools. Always withdrawing its efforts when no longer needed in the cause, it avoided the effects of jealousy by showing that it had no desire for control.

With a view to produce system throughout the then Batavian Republic, a law containing the general principles which should govern primary instruction was passed in 1806, and was accompanied by a series of regulations, to carry out its details. The most important provisions of the law are those for the inspection and management of the schools, and for the due qualification of school-masters, the establishment of individual schools being left to the local authorities. The system of inspection is eminently adapted to a country where centralization has never existed, and has proved highly successful in its operation. It begins with the appointment in each school district, of an inspector, and, when the schools are numerous, gives him the assistance of a committee.

The inspectors of the different school districts of a province form the Provincial Board of Primary Instruction, who meet thrice every year, receive the reports of the Inspectors, deliberate upon the concerns of primary instruction in the province, and make report annually to the minister of the interior. To carry out this system, the minister of the interior has authority to convene at the capitol an assembly of delegates from the provincial Boards, to advise upon general matters. Only one such meeting has however taken place. In the general control of primary instruction, the minister of the interior is replaced by an officer called the referendary, and there is also an inspector general,* who resides at the Hague.

To be admitted to the rank of a teacher, certain preliminary examinations must be passed before the school-inspector, or local or provincial Board, according to the grade sought. There are four grades, requiring each a different examination. The lowest of these may be obtained at the age of sixteen, the third at eighteen, and the second at twenty-two. The second qualifies for the mastership of any primary school, and the first is, in fact, honorary. To pass the examination for the

* M. Wynbeek.

second grade, the candidate must be able to read and spell correctly, to write a good hand, must have a knowledge of the theory of the Dutch language, geography, history, arithmetic, in all its branches, and a facility in imparting instruction. His moral and religious qualifications are also ascertained.

This general examination entitles an instructor to become a candidate for vacant schools, either public or private, but does not supersede the special examination or competition which may be required by their directors.

The law, besides, enjoins upon the local authorities, on the one hand, to furnish a sufficient number of schools for the population, and on the other not to allow such a number as to render the income of the several masters inadequate to their support.

The definition of a primary school, as given in one of the regulations issued to complete the law, covers a wide field. According to it, a primary school is one in which youth is instructed in the first principles of knowledge, such as reading, writing, arithmetic and the Dutch language, or the more advanced branches, such as the French, or other modern languages, or the ancient languages, geography, history, and other subjects of that description. There are several different kinds of schools, corresponding to different grades of instruction in these branches. Infant school instruction is included in the primary department, but it is not yet fully developed, being limited chiefly to Rotterdam and Zwolle.

The lowest schools are those for the poor, (armen-scholen) and which are entirely gratuitous. The children enter at from six to seven, and from twelve to fourteen. As supplementary to them are evening schools, principally intended for revising former courses, and which should be attended until sixteen or eighteen years of age. As the attendance in these latter schools is not obligatory, the proportion of those who receive instruction in them, varies much in different localities.

The next are called intermediate schools (tusschen-scholen) in which the pupils pay a trifling fee.* Both these are, in general, public. Some have been established by the school committees, and after a few years have become self-supporting. The grade of instruction is rather higher than in the schools for the poor, but as the law does not prescribe any particular programme, it varies much in the different parts of Holland—a school which would be called intermediate in a small town, ranking below one of the gratuitous establishments for the poor, in one of the chief cities. The amount taught, depends, other circumstances being the same, upon the average age to which the children remain at school, and therefore varies also in different parts of the kingdom.

The next grade, or burgher school, (burger school) is, in general, a private establishment. It is distinguished from both the classes just enumerated by a larger fee,† and in general, by a higher grade of instruction; but while, in a single town or district, it is easy to perceive this gradation, yet it is scarcely possible to observe it on a comparison of the country at large. In some places, the last mentioned school is called the Dutch school, to distinguish it from the following class.

The school denominated the "French School," is the highest of the primary division, and is, in general, a private establishment, though frequently of the kind classed by law with private schools, but superintended in reality, by the local school-committee itself. Besides the branches taught in the other schools, the courses of this embrace the French language, of which the pupils acquire a grammatical knowledge, and which they are enabled to speak with considerable facility. These schools prepare their pupils for entrance into active life, and serve also in some degree as feeders to the grammar or Latin schools. The instruction in French is not, however, an exclusive mark of this grade of institution, as the de-

* For example, in an intermediate school at Rotterdam, which I visited, eight cents a week.

† The school fee at the burgher school at Haarlem is between six and seven dollars a year.

scendants of the French emigrants, constituting the Walloon congregations, continue the teaching of this language in the gratuitous schools for the poor, connected with their churches.

While, in point of fact, there is not the regular fourfold division of primary instruction which thus appears, it is difficult to draw a separating line. The intermediate school connects the school for the poor, and the burgher school, while, in the burgher schools, the same branches are studied as in the French schools, except the French language. The less number of children under the charge of one master, the greater age to which the children in general remain at school, the generally greater capacity of the master, from the higher salary which his talents command, the greater family culture of the children before coming into and while in the school, render the average progress in the burgher school of a given place, superior to that in the intermediate school, and in this latter higher than in the school for the poor. I must say, however, that in more than one case, in the same place, I could detect no difference in the school itself, between the intermediate and the burgher school, except in the greater comfort of the accommodations of the latter; and I have already remarked that, in comparing the establishments of different places, the name is not an accurate guide to the grade of the school.

A sketch of the arrangement of the primary schools themselves would, I have thought, be rendered more compendious, without injury to its fidelity, by selecting for particular description one of the schools for the poor, which, as a class, rank higher in Holland than in any other of the European States, and engrafting upon the account of this, remarks on the methods of other schools; concluding by a brief statement of the particulars in which the intermediate, burgher, or French schools differ, in general, from the assumed type, or from each other.

Before doing so, however, there are some points fixed by the school regulations, which require notice. The first is, that the system of instruction must be that called simultaneous, or in which all the pupils of a class take part at once. In practice, this requires to be varied by questions adapted to individuals, and the classes, therefore, must not be too large. In the intermediate schools I found, more commonly, classes of from thirty to fifty, the lesser number being well adapted to the method. With a well trained master, and a class of moderate numbers, this kind of instruction is the most lively that can be imagined, and when judiciously varied, by questions put to all, but which only one is permitted to answer, it is also thorough. It is, in a great degree, the system already described of Mr. Wood's own class in the Edinburgh Sessional School.

The method of mutual instruction is not at all favored in Holland. A very decided and general opinion against it, appears early to have been brought about by the comparison of the English schools with their own. A prize was offered for the best dissertation on the subject, by the society for public utility, and taken by M. Visser, inspector of primary schools in Friesland. This excellent dissertation, which was published and widely distributed by the society, no doubt contributed to form or strengthen the opinion which prevails at this day.

The only approach to the monitorial system in the schools of Holland, is, that pupils who have an inclination to teach and who will probably become teachers, are put in charge of the lower classes of a school. Thus, also, some of the best monitors of the Borough-road School in London are boys who are likely one day to follow the career of teaching. There is, however, a very wide difference between the use of a few apprentices to the profession, and that of a large number of monitors to give instruction. I had occasion to observe, however, that in many cases there was a want of life in the younger classes entrusted to these inexperienced teachers. If they are to be used, it would be better to employ them in classes which have some training, even though nearer the teacher's age and attainments.

The next point is in regard to religious instruction in the schools. There is unbounded toleration of religious creed in Holland, and while the necessity of religious instruction in the schools has been strongly felt, it has been made to stop short of the point at which, becoming doctrinal, the subjects taught could interfere with the views of any sect. Bible stories are

made the means of moral and religious teaching in the school, and the doctrinal instruction is given by the pastors of the different churches on days appointed for the purpose, and usually not in the school-room.

The last point is in regard to the choice of school-books. The publication of them is not left to open competition. Every book, before it can be used in a public school, must be submitted to the examination of the minister of the interior, acting, of course, by deputy, and if approved, is admitted to the list of books which may be used in the schools. From this list, the provincial board of primary schools select those which they consider best to be used in their province, and from their list the teachers choose such as they approve. In private schools, the teacher selects his own books, but he must report a list of them to the inspector.

There are two normal schools for the education of teachers for the primary schools, one at Groningen, established by the society for public utility, the other at Haarlem,* by the government. Formerly, all instructors were prepared in the different primary schools. They began to teach as early as twelve years of age, attending the evening school to make up their loss of time during the day. At sixteen, they had served their apprenticeship, and were admissible to the fourth grade of teachers. This method prevails still to a considerable extent, but as it has been found to produce rather routine than intelligent teaching, the two normal schools have been established to supply the defect.

The material of elementary intellectual instruction consists in most countries, of reading, writing, arithmetic, and a knowledge of the mother tongue, to which the geography of the country, and sometimes general geography, natural history, linear drawing, and vocal music are added. Special exercises of the perceptive and reflective faculties are also included in the more improved intellectual systems. While the material is thus nearly the same, nothing can be more different than the results produced by the schools, according to the use which is made of it. In some, the means are mistaken for the end, and if the pupil is enabled to read, write, and cypher mechanically, the school is supposed to have done its duty. In others, these branches are employed as the means of developing the intellect, as well as for the communication of useful knowledge; according as one or the other view is taken, the instruction is arranged in conformity with it. In Holland, the intellectual methods of Pestalozzi have taken deep root, and the enlightened state of public opinion, in regard to elementary education, prevents, in a great degree, a mechanical system of teaching.

The plan of the school for the poor at the Hague, to which I now proceed, will justify this remark. To render it clear, I shall, even at the risk of dwelling rather long upon it, present first the essential features of the instruction; next show the chief steps in the entire course, from which a just idea of the character of the whole of it can be formed, appending to this, some remarks upon the methods of teaching, and the text books. Then, by separating the exercises of the classes, and attaching to each the number of hours devoted to it per week, I shall show that this is no theoretical programme, but one formed for practice; and this will further appear, by stating, in conclusion, some of the results which I witnessed at an examination of the pupils.

This school, I should remark, though ranking with the best of those which I saw in Holland, is not distinguished above several others of its class, and in its intellectual character, seemed to me decidedly below many of the intermediate schools, where the pupils are less numerous. It is therefore no exaggerated statement of what is obtained between the ages of six and twelve or fourteen. The subjects of instruction, including intellectual and moral, are:

Exercise of the perceptive and reflective faculties. Learning to read according to Prinsen's method, including the spelling of words and the analysis of words and simple sentences. The composition of simple sentences with printed letters. A knowledge of the different kinds of printed and written letters. Writing from dictation, for orthography. Correct reading of prose and poetry. Grammar of the Dutch language. Geography of Holland. History of Holland, including its chronology. Writing, beginning and ending with writing on the black-board. Linear drawing. Arithmetic by induction.

* Established in 1816.

Mental and written arithmetic, with a knowledge of the Roman numerals. Practical Arithmetic, to decimal fractions inclusive. The theory of numbers. Moral and religious instruction. Vocal music.

As natural history does not appear either in this programme or in others of primary schools, I was at the pains to ascertain if anything was taught in relation to a branch so eminently calculated to promote early religious impressions, and found that incidentally information was given on the habits of animals, and some of the phenomena of the physical world. It will be observed that in this school, as in general, physical training forms no part of the system. In Holland, the gymnastics, so popular in Northern Germany, have never been permanently introduced, even in the boarding schools.

The nature and extent of the instruction in the branches enumerated above will be best understood by the following list of progressive exercises.

1. Exercises of thought, reason and intelligence.
2. **READING.** Prinsen's Reading Tables. Vowels and consonants from the letter-box. Composition of words on the Reading-board. Explanation of words and simple sentences. Spelling from memory. Exercises in reading different printed and written characters. Simultaneous reading from a series of books graduated to the capacity of the class. Explanation of words met in reading. Composition of sentences on the reading board. Writing from dictation for orthography. Correct reading. Composition of simple sentences.
3. **GRAMMAR** practically. Conjugation of Verbs, &c. Parsing.
4. **HISTORY** of Holland and chronology.
5. **GEOGRAPHY** of Holland.
6. **WRITING.** Elements of writing on the blackboard. Writing on slates. Writing of numbers. Linear drawing. Writing on paper. Writing capital letters and large hand. Exercises of writing on the black-board.
7. **ARITHMETIC** by induction. Mental Arithmetic. Reading Roman numbers. Practical Arithmetic. Tables of moneys. Exercises in reading numbers. Decimal fractions. Tables of weights and measures. Theory of arithmetic. Elements of form.
8. **MORAL AND RELIGIOUS** instruction. Bible stories, &c.
9. **SINGING.**

In giving a short explanation of the exercises just enumerated, I shall not confine myself to the methods followed in this particular school, with all of which indeed I am not acquainted, but give them as in most general use, especially as I saw them practised in the schools of Haarlem, which have the advantage of immediate contact with the seminary for teachers there, and the use of its pupils as sub-teachers.

The exercises of perception and reflection in frequent use, are those recommended by Ewald, and consist of a selection from various authors, as well as of many subjects on which the teacher is expected to be informed. The instruction is given orally, according to the following outline: The child is taught to observe and to speak correctly, by referring to objects which are about him. Knowledge of colors. Of some varieties of form, as round, square, &c. Naming of words of similar and contrary significations. Meaning of verbs in common use. Numerating by cubes. Knowledge of coins of the country, and their relative values. Division of time. To tell the time by a watch. To distinguish the true from the false. Questions on nature and art. Qualities of resemblance and distinction. Compound expressions, as "good day," "besides," &c. Witty sayings. Points of the compass. Lessons on weights and measures. On different metals. Articles of furniture in common use. Different daily occupations. The four ages of man. Different ranks of society. Proverbs and phrases. Riddles and charades. Fables. Honorable and dubious actions. Explanations of words.

Systems, in my opinion better than those of Lohr, are in use in Germany, but this enumeration shows what in general these exercises are in the Dutch schools.

The arrangements for teaching reading, according to Prinsen, are a spelling and reading board, to be presently described, reading tables or progressive lessons printed and pasted upon boards, and a series of reading books, beginning with the simple vowel sounds, and rising to stories for children who have a facility in reading. There is a manual also for the teacher to guide his lessons. The reading-board consists of a centre piece with horizontal grooves, or raised ledges forming grooves between them, into which small wooden prisms, having letters marked, or printed letters pasted upon them, may be placed. The vowels are arranged in compartments on one side of the centre-piece, and the consonants on

the other. The letter prisms have the same letter in different characters, capitals and small letters on four faces of the prism. This reading machine admits of a great variety of exercises in the mechanical arrangements concerned, in which the pupil takes part, such as composing simple words and sentences, and forming words from the letters composing them, which have been purposely disarranged. The reading tables of progressive lessons are for the purposes of varying the exercises, of employing a number of children actively at the same time, and for habituating themselves to letters of the ordinary size. They are nine in number, beginning with single vowels, and terminating with words containing several compound sounds. All the combinations of letters used form words, as in Mr. Wood's plan, and the teacher is careful to require an explanation of every word, as it occurs. Prinsen's Primer enables the teacher to exercise the intelligence of his pupil, and to give a pleasing variety to his instruction. There are pictures attached to each letter, representing some object or action, the word referring to which contains the vowel sound to be taught. The teacher draws from the pupil a description of the object or action, and when he has obtained the right word, makes the child remark the sound of the letters. Of course, these sounds are not the arbitrary names of the letters, and hence, this method, to distinguish it from the spelling method is called "phonic" (*lautre*.) The reading-machine and primer are used in conjunction. When the pupil has reached the "first reading-book," the teacher reads aloud, that the former, by following, may receive ideas of emphasis.—The reading-books contain stories entirely adapted to the comprehension of children, giving them ideas of common trades and operations, of moral sentiments, of nature, of the biographies of the worthies of Holland, familiar letters, &c. They contain various forms of printed and written alphabets.

In learning to write, beginning upon the slate or board, one of the pupils composes a word upon the reading board, with written letters; then, all name the sounds, and copy the forms upon their slates. In some schools, elementary forms are first taught, and the letters of large hand next written.—In others, small hand is made the basis; and in the school for the poor, at the Hague, the teacher has ingeniously sifted out the elements of a current small hand, and begins with them. From the best examination I could give these methods, it appeared to me that the hand begun by small letters was not so good as that begun by large ones.

A specimen of the method of teaching geography will be seen by following the outline of Prinsen's description of Haarlem, used as a guide to the teachers of that place. It begins with the elementary notions of the manner of representing a country on a map, the points of the compass, &c. Then follows the position of the town, its size, and the character of its environs, number of its inhabitants, most remarkable buildings, the divisions of the town, the gates, principal canals and streams, principal streets, and particulars relating to remarkable buildings in them, and minute descriptions of the more important places in the several wards, from the first to the sixth. After thus becoming acquainted with the geography of the town and its environs, that of Holland follows. In some schools, the old method is still in use.

Arithmetic is chiefly taught according to Pestalozzi's method, cubical blocks being used for numeration. These have been superseded in some countries, by the arithmetical frame spoken of before, which answers the same purpose of addressing the eye, while its use is more convenient than that of the cubes. The method is by induction. The first lesson teaches to combine three units, variously, by addition. The second, to reckon these forwards or backwards. The third, to name them from the middle. Then, ideas of comparison, as of greater or less numbers, up to three units. Of differences, of how many times unity must be repeated to make two or three, or elementary ideas of subtraction, of multiplication, and of division. The same course of lessons is repeated, increasing the number of cubes (units) up to ten. Next follow ideas of even and uneven numbers, and of the result of their combinations, reaching as high as fifteen. Counting by units, by twos, by threes, and following the same steps as in the earlier lessons, counting by twos and threes, by ones and threes, &c., and always repeating the same train. A similar course is followed in reckoning up to twenty, adding counting by fours, by threes and fours, by twos and fours, by ones and fours, and a sim-

ilar series by fives. This course is kept up as long as necessary, and from the insight it gives, from the very beginning, into the theory of Arithmetic, a judicious teacher will be amply repaid for the somewhat tedious repetition of the earlier steps, by the facility of the later progress. The various exercises in arithmetic are fully detailed in the programme of the Hague school, already given. The elements of form are also taught according to Pestalozzi.

The results of the moral and religious instruction communicated in and out of school, are fully shewn in the character of the people of Holland; and these must be deemed satisfactory. Sectarian instruction is carefully kept out of the schools, while the historical parts of the Bible and its moral lessons are fully dwelt upon. There are various collections of Bible stories for this purpose, which are commented on by the teacher, and all the incidental instruction, so important in a school, has the same tendency. Doctrinal instruction is given, according to an arrangement made with the churches of the various denominations when the school law was promulgated; this instruction is imparted out of the school, on the half-holidays and Sundays. Sometimes, when, as at the Hague, the pupils nearly all belong to one communion, a catechist attends at the school; but even then, only those children whose parents wish it are present at the exercises.

Music is taught by note, and most of the schools have a black-board, with the ledger lines painted in white or red upon it, to assist the teacher. The songs are of very various characters, as moral, religious, patriotic, grave, gay and loyal;—and very considerable attainment is made in vocal music.

I return now to the school of the Hague, to give an account of the manner in which the various exercises are accomplished, within the six or eight years devoted to elementary instruction. As the law requires but three classes in each school, these are sub-divided. Each division is, in fact, a separate class, with a distinct course of study, and an industrious pupil can pass through one division each year. The number of hours marked, are those devoted per week to the several subjects.

FIRST, OR LOWEST CLASS.

FIRST DIVISION.		Hours.
Exercises of thought and reason,	- - -	2
Prinsen's Tables,	- - -	6
Vowels and consonants from the letter-box,	- - -	1
Composition of words on the reading-board,	- - -	3
General exercises with the letter-box,	- - -	1
Spelling from memory,	- - -	1
Explanation of words and sentences,	- - -	2
Simultaneous reading from books,	- - -	4
Individual reading,	- - -	1
Reading different printed characters,	- - -	1
Mental Arithmetic,	- - -	1
Exercises in Arithmetic,	- - -	2
Learning Roman and Arabic numerals,	- - -	1
Sitting quiet,	- - -	1
Exercises of thought and reason, continued,	- - -	2
SECOND DIVISION.		
Vowels and consonants from the letter-box, continued,	- - -	1
Spelling from memory, continued,	- - -	3
Explanation of words and sentences, continued,	- - -	3
Simultaneous reading from books, continued,	- - -	7
Composition of sentences on the reading board,	- - -	1
Reading written characters,	- - -	2
Writing on the black-board,	- - -	1
Arithmetic by induction, continued,	- - -	1
Mental arithmetic, continued,	- - -	1
Writing and reading numbers,	- - -	2
Reading Roman numerals,	- - -	1
Elements of form,	- - -	1
Sitting quiet,	- - -	1
THIRD DIVISION.		
Exercises of thought and reason, continued,	- - -	2
Spelling from memory, continued,	- - -	1
Explanation of words and sentences, continued,	- - -	1
Simultaneous reading from books, continued,	- - -	7
Composition of sentences on the reading board, continued,	- - -	1
Writing on the black-board, continued,	- - -	1
Reading written characters, continued,	- - -	1
Grammar, the conjugations,	- - -	1
Writing on slates,	- - -	1
Writing out verses to learn by rote,	- - -	1

Linear drawing,	- - -	1
Arithmetic by induction, continued,	- - -	1
Mental arithmetic, continued,	- - -	1
Practical arithmetic,	- - -	1
Writing and reading numbers, continued,	- - -	2
Reading Roman numerals, continued,	- - -	1
Elements of form, continued,	- - -	1
Tables of coins,	- - -	1
Catechism,	- - -	1

SECOND CLASS.

FIRST DIVISION.

Exercises of thought and reason continued,	- - -	2
Analysis of sentences,	- - -	1
Explanation of words and sentences, continued,	- - -	1
Composition of sentences continued,	- - -	1
Simultaneous reading, continued,	- - -	5
Correct reading,	- - -	1
Parsing,	- - -	1
Writing on slates,	- - -	2
Writing small hand on paper,	- - -	5
Mental Arithmetic, continued,	- - -	1
Practical Arithmetic, continued,	- - -	2
Tables of coins, continued,	- - -	1
Elements of form, continued,	- - -	1
Linear drawing, continued,	- - -	1
Moral and religious instruction, continued,	- - -	1
Singing,	- - -	1

SECOND DIVISION.

Exercises of thought and reason, continued,	- - -	1
Simultaneous reading from books, continued,	- - -	5
Correct reading, continued,	- - -	1
Composition of sentences, continued,	- - -	1
Writing on the slate, continued,	- - -	1
Writing on paper, continued,	- - -	4
Writing capital letters,	- - -	1
Linear drawing, continued,	- - -	1
History of Holland,	- - -	1
Geography of Holland,	- - -	1
Arithmetic by induction, continued,	- - -	1
Mental arithmetic, continued,	- - -	1
Practical arithmetic, continued,	- - -	3
Rules of Arithmetic,	- - -	1
Decimal Fractions,	- - -	1
Elements of form, continued,	- - -	1
Moral and religious instruction, continued,	- - -	1
Vocal music, continued,	- - -	1

THIRD CLASS.

Exercises of thought and reason, continued,	- - -	1
Simultaneous reading, continued,	- - -	1
Correct reading of prose and poetry,	- - -	1
Writing from dictation, for orthography,	- - -	2
Grammar, continued,	- - -	1
History of Holland, continued,	- - -	1
Chronology of Holland,	- - -	1
Geography of Holland,	- - -	2
Writing of small hand from copy slips,	- - -	2
Writing capital letters and figures,	- - -	1
Writing on blackboard,	- - -	1
Mental arithmetic, continued,	- - -	1
Practical do. do.	- - -	4
Rules of do. do.	- - -	3
System of weights and measures,	- - -	1
Theory of numbers,	- - -	1
Moral and religious instruction, continued,	- - -	1
Catechism, continued,	- - -	1
Vocal music, continued,	- - -	1

The half-yearly examination of the pupils, at which I was present, enabled me to hear their progress in Arithmetic with the cubes, in reading and spelling, in forming words and sentences, in numerating written numbers, making Roman numerals, in higher reading, in the elements of form, in higher arithmetic, in mental arithmetic, in the geography of Holland, and in vocal music. Their attainments in these branches were, in general, quite respectable, and in some of them very satisfactory indeed.

The system of weights and measures is taught in the schools of Holland, not only by learning tables, but by reference to the standards themselves, a complete set of copies of which is expected to be preserved in every school. The advantages of this method are very great.

The branches taught in the schools for the poor, are carried further in the burgher schools. Thus the course of grammar

is extended, and general history and geography are added. The essentials are, however, the same, and there is no new train of study.

The instruction in the, so called, French schools, may be illustrated by that in the one established by the school committee of Utrecht. This school consists of three divisions: two for boys and one for girls. Of those for boys, the first is a Dutch elementary school, which takes its pupils at about five years of age, and carries them through a course very similar to that already described.* At from ten to eleven, they pass to the French school. Here they make further attainments in the Dutch language, study general geography and history in detail, carry their arithmetic further, and begin algebra, continue the course of geometry, make greater progress in the theory and practice of music, and above all, study the French language grammatically, and by using it as the language of recitation, and learning much of the other branches through its medium, acquire a great facility in speaking it.—In some of these schools, physics and natural history are taught, and Latin is begun by those who intend to enter the Grammar school.

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL AT HAARLEM.

This school, which has been already referred to in the chapter on primary instruction in Holland, is peculiar in regard to instruction, practice in teaching, and discipline. It is intended to prepare for at least the second grade among primary teachers, which, it will be remembered, qualifies for the mastership of any primary school, the first class being an honorary grade. The age of admission, the time of continuance, and the courses of instruction, are regulated accordingly.

The director, Mr. Prinsen, is the head of the institution, and controls absolutely all its arrangements. His principle, that a teacher in such a situation should be left to study the character and dispositions of his pupils, and to adapt his instruction and discipline to them, dispenses with rules and regulations, or constitutes the director the rule. To carry out this principle requires that the school should not be numerous, and it is accordingly limited to forty pupils. There is an assistant to the director, who shares in the general instruction with him, and upon whom the religious teaching of the pupils specially devolves. The school is visited periodically by the inspector-general, who examines the pupils personally, and notes their general and individual proficiency.

To be admitted, a youth must be over fifteen years of age, and have passed an examination upon the studies of the elementary school, satisfactory to a district-inspector, who recommends him for admission. He is received on probation, and at the end of three months, if his conduct and proficiency are satisfactory to the director, is recommended to the minister of public instruction, who confirms his appointment.

The course of theory and practice lasts four years in general, though, if a pupil have the third lower grade of public instruction in view, which is attainable at eighteen years of age, he is not required to remain connected with the institution beyond that age, and indeed may leave it, on his own responsibility, before the close of the regular course. The second grade is only attainable at the age of twenty-two, and hence it is not usual for pupils to enter this school as early as the law permits. The theoretical instruction is composed of a review and extension of the elementary branches, as the Dutch language, geography, arithmetic, elementary geometry, the history of the country, natural history, religion, writing, and vocal music, and also of general geography and history, natural philosophy, and the science and art of teaching. This is communicated in the evenings, the pupils meeting at the schools for the purpose. During the day they are occupied in receiving practical instruction, by teaching under the inspection of the director in the elementary school already spoken of, attached to the normal school and occupying its rooms, or in teaching in some other of the elementary schools in the town of Haarlem. They pass through different establishments in turn, so as to see a variety in the character of instruction. The director, as inspector of primary schools in this district, visits frequently those where his pupils are employed, and

* I was much pleased to see the method of teaching geography, by delineating maps on the blackboard in use in this school. The master himself must be practised in the art, in order that the pupils may learn by imitation.

observes their teaching, and also receives a report from the masters. The observations and reports are turned to account in subsequent meetings with his class.

The pupils do not board together in the normal school, but are distributed through the town, in certain families selected by the director. They form a part of these families during their residence with them, being responsible to the head for the time of their absence from the house, their hours, and conduct. They take their meals with the families, and are furnished with a study and sleeping room, fire, lights, &c. The directors pay the moderate sum required for this accommodation from the annual stipend allowed by government.* The efficiency of such a system depends, of course, upon the habits of family life of the country, and upon the locality where the school is established. In Holland and Haarlem the plan succeeds well, and has the advantage that the pupils are constantly, in a degree, their own masters, and must control themselves, and that they are never placed in an artificial state of society or kind of life, which is the case when they are collected in one establishment. The director makes frequent visits to these families, and is informed of the home character of his pupils. The discipline of a normal school is of course one of the easiest tasks connected with it, for improprieties or levities of conduct are inconsistent with the future calling of the youth. Admonition by the assistant and by the director are the only coercive means resorted to, previous to dismissal. The director has authority to dismiss a student without consulting the minister, merely reporting the fact and cause to him. Though this power may be important in increasing his influence, yet it has been necessary to exercise it but three times in twenty years. There are two vacations of from four to six weeks each, during which the pupils, in general, return to their friends. The school has a lending-library of books relating to teaching, and of miscellaneous works. This useful institution supplies for the primary schools every year from eight to twelve well prepared masters, who propagate throughout the country the excellent methods and principles of teaching here inculcated.

* This annual stipend is ninety dollars. Supposing that a student has an entire bursary, he will require some additional funds to support him while at the school; for his board, lodging, &c. cost two dollars per week, which, for the forty-two weeks of term time, amounts to eighty-four dollars, leaving him but six dollars for incidental expenses.

EXTRACTS FROM

THIRD REPORT OF GEORGE NICHOLLS, ESQ.

On the condition of the laboring classes and the provision for the relief of the poor, in

HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.

The institutions for popular education in Holland, constitute one of the most marked features of the domestic policy of that country, and claimed our especial attention, not only on account of the strong resemblance between many parts of its social system and our own, but because of the great contrast perceptible between the means adopted for the education of the poorer classes in Holland, and those which exist in this country.

Nothing can exceed the cleanliness, the personal propriety, and the apparent comfort of the people of Holland. I did not see a house or a fence out of repair, or a garden that was not carefully cultivated. We met no ragged or dirty persons, nor any drunken man, neither did I see any indication that drunkenness is the vice of any portion of the people, although we were during all hours of the day much in the public thoroughfares, we saw only two beggars, and they in manners and appearance scarcely came within the designation. The Dutch people appear to be strongly attached to their government, and few countries possess a population in which the domestic and social duties are discharged with such constancy.

The measures adopted in Holland to promote the education of all classes, have apparently resulted from the conviction that the moral and social character of the people, their intelligence, and their capacity for increasing the resources of the country, must in a great measure depend upon the manner in which they are trained for the fulfillment of their several duties. The state has not rendered education actually obligatory upon the municipalities, neither has it required evidence

of the education of the children of the poorer classes by any educational test, for a sense of the importance of education pervades the entire community—it is sought by the poor for their children, with an earnestness similar to that observed in the more wealthy classes in other countries; and in Holland, the direct interference of Government is confined to regulating the mode of instruction, by means of an organized system of inspection. The department of education is under the superintendence of the Minister of the Interior, assisted by the Inspector-General of Instruction, from whom all changes in the general regulations emanate; but the inspection of schools, the examination and the special authorization of teachers, devolve upon local Inspectors. The Inspectors of each department assemble thrice every year in the chief town of the province, when they constitute a commission, at which the reports of each local Inspector are read, and various questions relative to the examination and general authorization of teachers, and the management and improvement of the schools, are discussed and settled.

The Government, from time to time, also assembles at the Hague a Council of Inspectors, composed of deputies from the board of each department. Each Inspector must visit every school in his district at least twice every year, and his influence within his district is necessarily great. The local commissions originate with him, and no teacher can instruct within the district who has not been specially authorized by him. He is controlled by the Commission of the Department, to which is entrusted the execution of the general regulations, and the provincial rules founded upon them, and this Commission is responsible to the Inspector-General and the Minister of the Interior. Every person desirous of becoming a teacher, is first examined before the Commission of the Department, which has authority to give a certificate of general capacity; but it is still necessary that the candidate should obtain a special permission from the authorities of the municipality, acting in concert with the local Inspector, before he can commence the discharge of his duties in any district. Teachers may be suspended or dismissed by the local or departmental authorities, when the Inspectors propose their suspension or dismissal.

The school masters of the primary schools in Holland, are supported in respectability and comfort. Their functions are held in high estimation, and we were assured that they are generally content with their lot; but there is no positive provision fixing their salaries. The law only enacts, generally, that the municipal and departmental authorities shall secure a sufficient income to the teachers, and that they shall not be left dependent upon payments from the parents of their scholars.

To the schools thus provided, the people without any exception or distinction are entitled to send their children, on payment of certain fixed sums monthly, or at shorter periods. These payments are regulated with reference to the nature of the education to be afforded; but the whole charge, even for the highest class, is of small amount. In the case of parents so poor, or so burthened with large families, as to be actually unable to pay, the local Authorities are empowered to remit the charge; and thus the means of education are secured to the lowest as well as to the highest. We were assured that no abuse of this power of exemption had ever occurred, and that no charge of partiality had ever been made. The people acquiesced cheerfully and contentedly in every arrangement, and were as desirous of sending their children to be educated, as the Government and local Authorities were to impart the benefits of education. *In Haarlem, with a population of 21,000, we were informed there was not a child of ten years of age, and of sound intellect, who could not both read and write, and throughout Holland it is the same.*

There are two Normal Schools at Holland; one at Groningen, for the departments of Frise, Drenthe, and Overijssel; and the other at Haarlem, for the rest of Holland. The latter school is conducted by M. Prinsen, to whom Holland is chiefly indebted for the introduction of the system of simultaneous instruction, on the principles promulgated by Pestalozzi. We were introduced to M. Prinsen by Baron de Koch, the Minister of the Interior, and visited the several departments of the Normal School at Haarlem, and obtained much information respecting the whole system of school discipline. These details do not come within the immediate scope of this Report; but the system adopted for recruiting the ranks of the teachers,

by raising the most distinguished scholars successively to the rank of *élèves*, supplying them with the instruction necessary to their success, and gradually fitting them by practice as assistant masters, to assume eventually the office of master, appears completely to succeed, and indeed to be essential to any efficient system of general primary education.

The schools contain, without distinction, the children of every sect of Christians. The religious and moral instruction afforded to the children is taken from the pages of Holy Writ, and the whole course of education is mingled with a frequent reference to the great general evidences of revelation. Biblical history is taught, not as a dry narration of facts, but as a storehouse of truths, calculated to influence the affections, to correct and elevate the manners, and to inspire sentiments of devotion and virtue.

EXTRACTS FROM

BARON CUVIER'S REPORT

ON THE

ESTABLISHMENTS FOR PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND, 1811.

It would be difficult to describe the effect produced upon us by the first primary school we entered, on our arrival in Holland. It was one of those maintained at the public expense, for the children of the poorest classes, for those who, in so many other countries, are left to drag out a miserable existence on the highways, exercising the trade of beggars, until they have become strong enough to follow that of thieves. Two large rooms, well lighted and well ventilated, contained three hundred of those children, all cleanly dressed, arranging themselves without any confusion, without noise, without rudeness, doing all they were desired, in obedience to signals, without the necessity of the master saying a word. They learn by sure and ready methods, to read fluently, to write a good and correct hand, to understand such arithmetic as is required for ordinary life, both mental and written, and to express their thoughts clearly in short written exercises. The books put into their hands, and the examples they get to write, advance by such judicious gradations, and the precepts and examples are intermingled so skilfully, that the children imbibe, at one and the same time, the truths of religion, the maxims of morality, and that knowledge which will be useful to them, and afford them consolation in their unhappy lot. By means of frequent questions, and by encouraging them to state their difficulties, it is fully ascertained that they understand what they read. Prayers, and hymns sung by the whole school, both composed expressly for these children, and all breathing a spirit of duty and of gratitude, give a charm to the business of teaching, while at the same time they impress upon it a religious and benevolent character, calculated to produce lasting effects. One master, and two assistants, who might themselves be taken for pupils, maintain complete order among this large number of children, without any speaking, or angry words, or corporal punishment; but by interesting them in what they are about, and keeping their attention constantly alive.

The first sight of the school gave us an agreeable feeling of surprise; but when we entered into an examination of the details, it was impossible not to be sensibly affected, when one considered what these children would have come to, had they been left unnoticed, and what they then were. But we said to ourselves, this is perhaps a solitary case, the result of the exertions of a wealthy town, or of the zeal of some citizens of unusual liberality; we were assured, however, that the more we travelled through the country the more we should see reason to alter that opinion; and so it turned out, for wherever we went, we found primary schools on the same plan, with the exception of some few instances, in which superannuated teachers could not shake off their old habits of routine. Nor was it in the towns that we found them the best; even on the frontiers of the country, in Groningen, and many leagues from the great lines of communication, we saw primary schools in villages as numerously attended, and composed of a better class of children, and altogether of a better description, than those in the great towns: in the latter, the children of the opulent classes are educated at home, whereas in the villages they go to school like other children. Wherever we went, we witnessed the same gaiety, the same propriety, the same neatness, both in the pupils and the master, and every where the same kind of instruction.

The most remarkable thing of all is, that they have arrived at this state of excellence in a few years; by means simple in themselves, without constraint, without exacting any sacrifice on the part of the masters, without imposing any other obligations upon them than those belonging to them as citizens and as public functionaries.

Thirty years ago, the inferior schools of Holland resembled those of the same class in other countries. Masters, nearly as ignorant as the children they had to teach, succeeded with difficulty to impart, in

several years, a slender amount of instruction in reading and writing to a small number of scholars. There was no general superintendence of the schools; the most of them were set up on private speculation; the different religious sects maintained several for their poor, under the supervision of their deacons; but these schools were exclusively for the children of the parish; those whose parents did not belong to some particular church were not provided for.

The first improvements that took place, and the plan upon which they were farther extended, emanated from a charitable association, called the Society for the Public Good, founded by the zeal of a pious and benevolent individual.

Education, however, was always the great object of the thoughts and labors of the Society for the Public Good; and the history of its achievements in this matter may be divided into three distinct branches: first, the researches to which it gave rise, on the physical education of children, upon the best methods of teaching, and upon moral education; secondly, the elementary books which were published, to assist in carrying those methods into practice; and thirdly, the schools which were established, not with the view of retaining them under their own direction, and still less of taking possession of primary instruction, but to supply, in the mean time, to the ordinary schools, models by which they might improve their systems. As these schools required an active management, and direct supervision, the society, as a body, did not take charge of them, but confided that duty to its different departments: on that account their schools have been called departmental; a name that has nothing to do with the departments of the kingdom, which were established long after the period in question. Besides these schools, which were intended only for children recommended by members of the society, some of its departments established schools for the poor, entirely gratis. In the greater number of them, they went so far as to form small libraries, with the view of affording to the work people of both sexes, who had left the schools, an opportunity, by means of interesting books, of keeping alive those sentiments of morality and religion, which had been implanted in them at school.

Labors so varied and so extended, could not fail to have an influence upon the improvement of public education. Different towns, excited either by example, or by representations of the departments of the society which were established among them, set about the improvement of their schools, or the establishment of new schools; and in this way, the magistrates of Amsterdam, in 1797, guided by the recommendations of the two departments in that city, erected their noble schools for the education of those children of the poor who did not belong to any particular church; schools where there are now more than 4000 pupils of both sexes.

But in 1801, 1803, and 1806, the government testified its respect for the society, by following the advice of several of its members in the measures which it adopted at these several periods, for the improvement and general organization of primary instruction. The law of 1806, and the general regulations annexed to it, constitute the rule for every thing that relates to the primary schools.

With regard to the teachers, four kinds of certificates are prescribed; the fourth or lowest rank implies no more than a knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic; for the third, they require, besides these, a knowledge of the elements of the Dutch language, and some notions of good methods of teaching. For the second, it is necessary for the candidates to have a thorough knowledge of their own language, to be acquainted with the theory and practice of arithmetic, to have some notions of history and geography, and a familiarity with methods of teaching. But the first rank cannot be obtained unless the candidate, besides a systematic knowledge of every thing relating to primary instruction, and to good methods of teaching, possesses some acquaintance with mechanical philosophy and geometry. The mode of examination for each degree is prescribed.

Each province is divided into a certain number of districts, and to each a superintendent is appointed, whose duty it is to inspect all the schools, to visit them at least twice a year, to look after their interests in all matters coming under the cognizance of the local authorities, and to make reports as to their condition, according to certain prescribed forms. Moreover, in the large towns, besides the district inspector, committees of individuals are established, the members of which take charge of different quarters of the town.

The united body of the different district inspectors of the province form the provincial board of public instruction; their duty being, to receive the report of each inspector relative to his own district, to examine the master, to deliver to them their certificates of competency, to deliberate upon every thing that may appear useful for the schools, and once a year at least, to make a report to the provincial authorities, (since that time, to the prefect,) upon the state of the schools.

The government is authorized to grant to each province a certain sum, meet the expenses of the travelling and meetings of the inspectors, but it is on such a scale that the duties must be performed almost gratuitously.

The mode of choosing these inspectors is excellent; they are taken, in general from among such proprietors or clergymen in the town or rural district as are most eligible, on account of their having a taste for the education of youth; from among those schoolmasters who have

most distinguished themselves in their vocation, and, in the towns where universities or grammar schools exist, from among the professors and rectors.

One essential circumstance in the system, which is both a cause and effect, is the comfortable condition of the masters. The consequence is, that they have the manners and the conversation of men who are not borne down by indigence; a placid deportment, the result of habitual contentment, sheds its influence over those who live with them, and the certainty of attaining so pleasant a lot, renders it easy to find excellent assistants from among the best of the scholars trained up by themselves.

In regard to the subjects taught, the primary schools in Holland differ, according as they are intended for the education of the humbler classes in the towns and rural districts, or for the children in the middle ranks. The first are called popular or trivial schools, and the schools for the poor are of that description, as far as the education is concerned; with this only difference, that the children in these schools pay nothing. The others are called burgher schools, and the education varies according as the pupils intend afterwards to go to a grammar school, or, on leaving the school, to go at once to a trade or profession. In the latter case, the education is carried furthest. The regular course of instruction in the popular schools consists of reading, calligraphy, orthography, mental and written arithmetic, elements of linear drawing and geography, and practice in church music. But the books in which the children are taught to read, the subjects dictated to them, the writing copies, the hymns and psalms which they sing, are of such a nature that they learn and imbibe at the same time, almost imperceptibly, an infinite variety of useful things.

The composition, the selection, the proper gradation of the school books, is therefore the fundamental basis of the whole system. Those which are to be used first, have prints, calculated to be attractive to children, to give them some ideas of external objects, and to connect in their memories the words with the ideas they represent. Next follow others containing short moral stories, calculated to interest them. After these come books which treat of natural objects, either curious in themselves, or useful to man; processes of art the most necessary to be made acquainted with; and in all of them, useful reflections upon providence, and upon the duties which man owes to his fellow creatures, are introduced. Sacred history, profane history, the history of their native country, treated in a manner to be understood by children, are the subjects of other school books; and there are some in which the principal civil and criminal laws are explained. The sentences either dictated to them, or given to be copied, always contain some maxims or moral truths adapted to that time of life. In shewing the children how to draw, or rather to trace regular lines, they teach them to measure distances and angles by the eye; and the examples in arithmetic are contrived to make them familiar with the relative values of weights and measures. Their hymns tell them the gratitude they owe to the Author of nature, the kindly feelings which should attach them to their parents, their masters, and their country, and the happiness they will derive from such affectionate feelings. The fruit of all this is, that without devoting one minute more to it, and while they think they are doing nothing more than learning to read, write, and cypher, they are imprinting on their memories what children in ordinary schools either never know, or only learn with difficulty, when their occupation gives them any leisure to read, after they have left school; and thus their minds are imbued with calm and noble sentiments, which intercourse with the world will doubtless but too soon weaken; but the impression of them can never be entirely obliterated.

Almost as much has been written for the benefit of the masters as for the children; the methods which they ought to follow, and even the questions which they may put to their pupils on every subject, are pointed out in books expressly composed for the purpose.

The means devised for the religious instruction of the children of all persuasions, are extremely ingenious, and at the same time highly appropriate, without involving them in the dangers of controversy. The particular doctrines of each communion are taught on Sundays, in the several places of worship, and by the clergy. The history of the New Testament, the life and doctrines of Jesus Christ, and those doctrines in which all Christians agree, are taught in the schools on Saturdays, the day on which the Jews do not come to school, on account of their sabbath. But those truths which are common to all religions, pervade, are connected with, and are intimately mixed up with every branch of instruction, and every thing else may be said to be subordinate to them.

The division of the time is usually as follows: two hours in the morning, and two in the afternoon for the ordinary scholars, and two hours in the evening for those young people who have left the day school to be put to a trade, but are desirous of keeping up and confirming what they had learned. That evening class is an institution of the greatest utility, for it not only confirms all the good obtained at the day school, but it withdraws the young people from infinite risks of irregularity and corruption of manners. The pupils themselves are usually divided into three orders or classes, according as they are learning reading only, or at the same time writing or arithmetic.

It remains for us now to point out in what way so large a number

of children are taught, at one time, the mechanical arts of reading and writing; things so difficult, that one is at a loss in after life to understand how they could be accomplished in one's infancy.

The smallest children are arranged on benches, the one behind the other, opposite to a blackboard. The master has his letters upon little tablets, which he fixes one after another upon the board, by means of slips or some other contrivance; whatever arrests the attention, or amuses the children most, is the best. He makes them observe the form of each letter, one after the other, and teaches them the sound of it, beginning with the common vowels; passing next to the simple sounds indicated by the use of two vowels, but which are considered as if they were simple vowels, and afterwards to the articulate sounds or consonants, simple or compound, which are distinguished also by their sound, adding only an unaccented *e*. Forty or fifty children can see at one time; they call out the names of the letters all together, and soon after the syllables, which the master puts before them; they learn in this way without being subject to the labor of being taught individually, and without being exposed to scoldings. They finish with making the children read whole words in chorus; and then for the first time they give them books to read from, one after the other; and in this exercise they take care to call them up at random, and not in any regular order, so that all may keep their eyes on what one of them is reading.

In learning to write, pretty nearly the same method is adopted: forty or fifty children having small slates and pencils in their hands follow what the master traces on the great board. They are first shewn the simple strokes, and are carried on by degrees to form the letters. When they know these by heart, they are made to write syllables, and then words, at first after a copy, and then to dictation. In proportion as they advance in their knowledge of orthography, they are taught to correct, orally, phrases written purposely with faults on the black board. They finish with putting questions to the children, to which they must write answers, and thus they carry them on to compose letters or some short composition, such as people in the common ranks of life may have occasion to write.

We have said that while they are taught to read and to write, their lessons are such as to convey at the same time a great variety of useful ideas. Care is taken to impress these well on their minds, by means of questions skilfully varied and repeated. Other questions are employed to make them understand the proper meaning of terms, and to enable them to distinguish between apparent synonyms and homonyms. In none of these things is the master left to his own imagination; numerous books supply him with all possible questions.

Numeration and the first two rules are taught to the youngest children, in a very simple way. There are a number of cubes which they make them count; when they have got a notion of simple numbers, they are taught the signs of these, by putting by the side of each figure a corresponding number of dots. Ten cubes collected in a little group convey the idea of tens, and in like manner they contrive to make them comprehend in a short time the value which the figures acquire according to their position, and the nature of decimal fractions. Always playing with his cubes, the master teaches them quite as quickly addition, subtraction, and multiplication, by examples of single figures, and then he passes on to the ordinary operations. It will scarcely be believed how much the substitution of slates for paper, among all the younger children, has the effect of introducing order, dispatch and cleanliness in the school. They do not give them paper until they are going to form their handwriting, and then they place them in that part of the class where there are desks.

In teaching geography they begin with a plan of the town where the school is situated, drawn on a large scale on the wall, and the pupils are made to distinguish the cardinal points and the direction of the streets; they are afterwards shown a map of the district, then that of the province, and so by degrees to the map of the world. All these maps are on a large scale, and few places are marked upon them, in order to avoid confusing their first ideas. They do not make use of ordinary maps until they have nearly done with the subject, and they finish with giving a summary notion of the sphere, in place of beginning with it, as is usually the case in most of our books.

What is most surprising, is the quietness and rapidity with which all this is done. The master has scarcely occasion to speak, except when he is going to put questions; the pupils themselves have signs in place of asking for what they want. When a question is put, all those who think they are able to answer it hold up their finger, and the master calls up one of them: in short, not a word is heard, except what is strictly necessary in the lesson: to teach tranquility and propriety of manner is one of the chief objects in education. All the children are required to come with clean faces and hands: when they enter the school, the youngest of them slip into their places without saying a word. In the schools for the poor, where books and paper are furnished, the pupil at the head of each form has to collect, at the end of the lesson, all that have been used by the pupils sitting on the same form with him: in the ordinary schools, every pupil has a little cupboard for locking up what belongs to him; and his *amour propre* is stimulated to keep all he has in nice order: the very hat-pins are arranged with all the regularity of Dutch neatness.

The attention of this large number of children is kept up principally in two ways. The first is by a judicious selection of the things told

them, so that they may be always interested; for when they first begin they are played with; and as soon as they are able to read, in place of giving them only one book, as we do, which they frequently do not understand, several are given to them in succession, presenting always something new and suited to their age. The second method is to excite a moderate degree of emulation, but so controlled as not to degenerate into rivalry. The head boy of each form marks down in a list the good or bad answers of each pupil, and all the varieties of faults; and every day that list is hung up in the school: a summary of it is made once a week, and the name of the best scholar in each class is posted up with due honor. There is another place for the names of the worst scholars. When the local committee, or the district inspector, visits the school, the best scholars receive certificates from them, which they can take home to shew their parents. There is also an annual examination at which prizes are distributed. A judicious use of these simple means has made it possible to abolish corporal punishments.

We shall say a few words about the village schools. They scarcely differ from the schools for the poor in the towns, except that, in general, all the children pay; the effect of this is, that there is a better selection of children, and a greater degree of emulation among the masters, and on these accounts they are both nicer looking and better kept. The children of the poor are not, however, excluded, but the parish or some charitable association pays for them; and thus the richest inhabitants of the village, and even those who live in the towns and come to the country for the summer, do not hesitate to send their children to the school.

Next in rank to the village schools, as far as the amount of instruction given, comes that kind of primary school which they call the burgher schools, where the children of citizens are educated, on payment of certain fees. Most children come to these with a certain degree of preparation from having attended schools of an inferior description, kept by women, who do nothing more than teach the elements of reading. At the burgher school, they teach reading, writing, religion, geography, the elements of history, the elements of mathematics, almost always French, frequently English, and sometimes German. From the enumeration of the subjects taught, it will be seen that they are schools of such a description as a country almost wholly mercantile would consider necessary.

The masters for primary schools are trained* in the primary schools themselves, and without any additional expense. The Society for the Public Good has also the merit of contriving this simple and effective mode; they relieved the most distinguished pupils from the payment of school fees, and allowed them to remain in the school two or three years longer than the other pupils, on condition of their devoting themselves to teaching. As the situation of a schoolmaster has become more and more respectable and lucrative, in proportion as the schools have been improved, the number of competitors for the office has increased in the same proportion. They employ these two or three years in perfecting themselves in the several branches taught; the young men then become assistants to their masters, and take charge of the youngest children; then they are advanced to the situation of under master, and as the district inspectors have constant opportunities of watching their zeal and success, they recommend them according to their merit, for the situations of masters, when vacancies occur; nor do they then lose sight of them, but keep their eye upon them for more advantageous masterships, when they shew themselves worthy of promotion. When another mode of nomination is not prescribed, they are chosen by competition, and then their comparative merits are discovered. The career is so sure a one, that there are instances, as we have already stated, of persons paying for beginning their profession under good masters. This system was first acted upon in 1800, in the schools for the poor at Amsterdam, which have already supplied one head master, eight under masters, and all the assistants that are at present employed. They have sent out several teachers besides, to schools in different towns and villages. Some zealous district inspectors have been in the habit of collecting, from time to time, the neighboring masters and assistants at their own houses, for the purpose of instructing them in the most important parts of tuition; we may mention among others, Mr. Van Swinderen, of Groningen, who has even established a small library for the use of the schoolmasters.

From all we have now stated, it will be evident, that the whole system of primary instruction in Holland is founded upon three bases, strongly connected, and mutually dependent upon each other; namely, the excellence and respectable condition of the masters, the active superintendence of inspectors, and a constant vigilance to render the methods of instruction more and more perfect; if any one of these three were to be shaken, the shock would be instantly communicated to the others, and the beautiful structure would speedily fall to the ground.

* Since the date of Cuvier's Report, as will be seen from Cousin's and Prof. Bache's Reports, Holland has introduced Normal Schools in her system of Public Instruction.

EXTRACTS FROM
M. COUSIN'S REPORT
 ON THE STATE OF
EDUCATION IN HOLLAND,
 AS REGARDS
Schools for the working classes and the Poor, 1836.

EVENING SCHOOLS AT THE HAGUE.

The children of the indigent classes continue at these schools until they are twelve or thirteen years of age, when they are sent to a trade; but they are not then lost sight of, for they are invited to continue their attendance in the evening, until they are sixteen; by which means they not only keep up but enlarge the store of knowledge they had acquired. I asked how many of those who had ceased to be day scholars attended the evening school, and I was told that nearly one third do.

EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.

In 1811, schoolmasters were trained in the same way as they now are generally: in all the public schools, those children are selected who show the most intelligence; they are kept somewhat longer, and are trained for their future destination by special instruction in the evening, and particularly by employing them in the different classes in succession; at first as assistants, with a very small remuneration; and then as undermasters, with a better allowance; until they are placed at the head of a school, when a vacancy occurs. That method of educating teachers for the primary schools is still practised, and it is, in some respects, an excellent one. They are trained at a very moderate expense, and farther, they are not made more than schoolmasters; they are not taught more than is necessary for their profession. Brought up in school, they acquire the habits of the place, they become attached to it, and cheerfully pass their whole life in it; whilst masters who are reared at a greater expense, and with more refined cultivation, run the risk of becoming less suited to the hard life that awaits them, take to it only when they can do no better, and quit it for something else as soon as they possibly can. These are the advantages of the system, but it has also great disadvantages. It is very apt to engender habits of routine; every defect which has got into the school takes root; the scholar, and future teacher, adopts blindly at first, and afterwards follows, with interested minuteness, the whole manner of the master on whom all his hopes depend; and thus, generation after generation of teachers may succeed, without one step in the way of improvement having been made.

I attach the greatest importance to normal primary schools, and consider that all future success in the education of the people depends upon them. In perfecting her system of primary instruction, normal schools were introduced for the better training of masters. The Government were cautious not to lay aside the old method, which was very good, but at the same time that they continued it, they established in 1816 two normal schools, one at Haarlem for the northern part of the kingdom, the other at Lierre, near Antwerp, for Belgium. One had already been instituted at Groningen, under the auspices of the Society for the Public Good, and it is now generally admitted that these new institutions have been eminently useful. All the school inspectors whom I met with in the course of my journey, assured me that they had brought about an entire change in the condition of the schoolmaster; that they had given the young teachers a feeling of dignity in their profession, and had thereby introduced an improved tone and style of manners, which had proved of singular advantage to the schools. Experience therefore, even in Holland, is all on my side, and indeed I consider the problem as solved. This however depends upon two conditions, without the observance of which I quite admit that normal schools would do more harm than good: *first*, that in giving the young teachers a higher degree of education than they would ordinarily receive in any primary school, care be taken to maintain in the normal school such strictness and severity of discipline, as shall best prepare the young men for their future laborious duties; and *secondly*, that it shall be essentially practical; that the theory of teaching, and the application of the theory, shall go on simultaneously.

SCHOOL INSPECTION.

We spoke afterwards of the inspection of the schools, and of the mode of effecting it. He said, "nothing else will do, except inspectors specially appointed." He expressed great regret that our law of 1833 did not establish special inspectors, to be named by the Government, as they are in Holland and Germany, and as I recommended in my report on primary instruction in Prussia; and he was much pleased when I told him that the defect had been afterwards corrected, and that we now have an inspector of primary schools in every department. He was quite delighted with the intelligence, but said, "Take care whom you choose for inspectors; they are a class of men who ought to be searched for with a lantern in one's hand." He was gratified by the high terms in which I spoke of the admirable system of having provincial boards of commissioners of primary instruction. These boards meet three times a year, in the chief town of the province, and

are composed, not of amateurs and benevolent philanthropists, but of the different school inspectors of the several districts into which the province is divided. These inspectors are public officers, in whose hands the whole system of primary instruction is virtually placed, for their duty being to superintend the schools, they have the means of finding out those children who show a greater than ordinary capacity, and who may become assistants, or be sent as pupils to the normal schools; they see them again on the occasion of their attending the examinations as to proficiency, which are intrusted exclusively to the inspectors; and again when they become candidates for some situation, which is invariably settled by a competition, at which an inspector always presides; and they meet with them afterwards at the periodical assemblies of the schoolmasters, where an inspector likewise takes the chair; and in short, they never lose sight of them during their whole career.

MUTUAL OR MONITORIAL INSTRUCTION.

He asked me how we got on with our system of mutual instruction. "Do you expect," he said, "that by such a mode of tuition, the instruction given in the primary schools will ever form men? for that in truth is the real purpose. The different things taught in school are but means, and their whole value depends upon the degree of relation they bear to that object. It never will be attained, unless the system of mutual instruction be given up; it does very well for the purpose of conveying a certain amount of information, but it will never educate the pupil; and, I repeat it, education is the object of all instruction."

It may be imagined with what satisfaction I listened to such sentiments, coming, as they did, from the mouth of so competent a judge as Mr. Van den Ende. "Nothing is more clear," I replied, "and both as a philosopher and a moralist, I maintain that simultaneous teaching (individual tuition being unattainable) is the only method that is suitable for the education of a moral being; but I am obliged to confess it, the system of mutual instruction is still popular in France, to a degree that is truly lamentable." "How does that happen," he said, "in a nation so intelligent as yours?" "From a fatal circumstance," I replied, "the consequences of which still continue. Under the restoration, the Government tried to place the primary schools in the hands of the clergy, and the resistance made to that scheme carried things to the opposite extreme. Some well meaning persons, but men who did not look below the surface of things, and were utter strangers to the subject of public instruction, having by chance visited some of those semi-barbarous manufacturing towns of England, where, for want of any thing better, they are too happy to have Lancasterian schools, mistook for a masterpiece of perfection, that which is only the infancy of the art of teaching; and were dazzled with the exhibition of vast numbers of children taught by one master, assisted only by little monitors, chosen from among the pupils themselves. Seeing children thus governed by children, they found a species of self-government, which they thought would be a useful preparation for the infusion of the democratic principle; and as it is obvious that a Christian education is impossible under such a system—for what monitor, even of twelve years of age, can give instruction in religion and morals?—they saw that the religious education amounted to nothing, unless the dry repetition of a catechism, such as we might expect to find in Portugal or Spain, can be called by that name; and thus they viewed as a triumph over the clergy. Other persons were pleased with the system on account of its cheapness, and then the eye was caught by the mechanical order and precision in the school exercises; the children went through their evolutions, according to a signal given by a child, as the different parts of the machinery in a factory are set in motion by a crank. This mechanical instruction was first set up, in opposition to the Church schools of the restoration: thus one extreme produces another; the domination of churchmen and despotism have equally unfavorable tendencies. Unhappily, the system of mutual instruction survived the struggles which preceded the revolution of 1830, but simultaneous instruction is gradually making progress, and the eyes of honest and disinterested persons will be opened." I added, that I had not met with a single schoolmaster in Germany, who was favorable to the system of mutual instruction; and that I had not seen one school so conducted, either at The Hague, or at Leyden. "Nor will you," replied Mr. Van den Ende, "in any other part of Holland;" a remark in which he was fully supported by Mr. Schreuder, to whom he appealed for the truth of it. "And this by no means arises," he continued, "from our not being sufficiently acquainted with that system; we have studied it well, and it is because we have studied it, that we have laid it aside. The Society for the Public Good, with which you must be well acquainted from the report of M. Cuvier, gave a prize for the best essay on the advantages and disadvantages of the two systems; and in the work to which the prize was awarded, the system of mutual instruction is analysed in its most minute details, and is proved to be unsound on every point which bears upon education in the proper sense of the term, the authority of the master, and the proper lessons to be inculcated. Mr. Visser, a school inspector, was the author of that Essay."

I was surprised to see a boy of twelve years old, in one of the pas-

* Mr. Visser was one of the best inspectors of the primary schools in Friesland, and is mentioned by Cuvier in his report.

sages in a primary school at Amsterdam, teaching the first elements of reading to some very young children. "Is that little fellow an assistant?" I asked.—"No, he is one of the pupils in the school, belonging to the most advanced class."—"He is then a monitor," I replied, "and you adopt the plan of mutual instruction."—"God forbid," said Mr. L'Ange with a smile,—"but we are eclectic here; we do not prescribe any useful practice, to whatever general system it may belong. Thus, when a child is found to possess the talent of teaching, and intends to become an assistant, and ultimately a teacher in a primary school, (and you know that every school for the poor is a true normal primary school,) we see no objection to entrusting a pupil of this description, not to teach, but to hear the lessons, in the more easy parts, repeated. In a case of exigency, children may be safely employed for the repetition of certain things; but the initiatory steps of all teaching require a master. Even our assistants, who are in fact masters, are not entrusted with anything beyond simple repetitions."

Our visit being over, we entered gravely into a consideration of the comparative merits of the plans of mutual and of simultaneous instruction. "Are you well acquainted, sir," I said, "with the system of mutual instruction?—have you applied it in practice?—and what is your opinion of it?"—"We know it," he replied; "we have tried it, and we consider it as wholly insufficient for the object to be attained."—"It is not," (I make use of the very words of Mr. L'Ange)—"It is not a system which is calculated for moral and intelligent beings; and we do not admit the justice of applying it in a school for the poor, more than in any other school. For the poor have especial need of education, and you cannot educate by a plan of mutual instruction; you can *instruct* only by it, and that in so superficial, and in some respects mechanical a way, that it is no cultivation of the mind. At the time when Holland and Belgium were united, the Belgian liberals used to talk so highly in favor of that system, especially for large numbers of children, as in the schools for the poor, that our college of curators, who are attentive to every thing of consequence that is going on, which bears upon the education of the people, thought it their duty to make trial of the new system; and the result of that trial was, that the plan of simultaneous teaching is the only true rational mode of education. In one of their reports upon our schools for the poor, they have stated the reasons which led them to that conclusion."

The following passages, from that part of the report where this point is discussed, I earnestly recommend to the attention of every true friend of the education of the people.

"At Amsterdam, the teachers are men of experience, and youths who have given proofs of a capacity for teaching; but in the Lancasterian schools in England, it is always children who teach. Now if it be true that the master who desires to teach with effect ought to be himself thoroughly well instructed, and be possessed of knowledge far beyond those whom he is to teach; if, above all, it be unquestionable that in order to teach any thing well, it is not enough to know it ourselves, but that we must have the art of imparting what we know in a clear intelligible manner, adapted to the subject; it must be admitted that instruction, such as is conveyed at Amsterdam by experienced men, and by youths who are educating themselves to be masters, is infinitely preferable to the plan of one child teaching another."

"It is true that to maintain such schools as those of Amsterdam a larger sum is requisite than for Lancasterian schools; but on the other hand, the pupils in the former have the advantage of being taught by very able masters, who have had experience in teaching from their youth upwards; they have for their reading lessons several little works calculated to purify their hearts as well as store their minds; and they write from the first on paper, and so learn to form a good hand, and to write fluently. If our objects in the schools at Amsterdam were limited to teaching the children no more than what is taught in the Lancasterian schools, we might do very well with apprenticed teachers and candidates only, and a great number of the books used in teaching to read, and for the instruction of the children, might be dispensed with; slates might be substituted for copy books; and then the Amsterdam schools perhaps might cost less than those in England, and without giving up many things which are not taught in the latter schools. But, thanks to the munificence of the magistrates of Amsterdam, and to the liberality of its inhabitants; thanks also to the interest which both the one and the other take in the promotion of education, our schools have never yet wanted a sufficiency of funds to pay able and experienced masters, to supply good books to the children who are taught gratuitously, and to teach them to write, not on slates, but with pen and ink and on good paper."

"Let it not be said that what is taught in the Lancasterian schools is sufficient, and that we carry the education of the indigent classes too far in our own. If it be sound policy (and it does not appear to us that it is now considered so) to keep the lower orders sunk in ignorance, let education of every kind be given up; for an education which stops short at the first rudiments, is more dangerous and far more to be feared than a system of education carried on to higher objects. A man who is able to read and no more, may read books that will corrupt his morals or lead him on to acts of sedition; and for want of sufficient knowledge to enable him to reflect upon and justly appreciate what he has read, he is liable to be misled and carried away by mere external impulses. We repeat it, if we go so far as to enable the lower orders to read, we ought to give them at the same time the means of understanding and

setting a just value on what they read; and this is what is chiefly aimed at in the education of the children of the poor in the schools of Amsterdam. All the books put into their hands, from the first elementary work, to those in use at the close of their education, contain precepts and examples of virtue, of wisdom, and of submission to superiors. They learn to read and to understand the history of their own country, and sacred history. Such reading lessons are better calculated than any thing else, to lead them on to the imitation of great and virtuous actions; the sole way of forming useful citizens. Further, (and this is another great advantage of the system followed in the schools of Amsterdam,) those among the pupils who show unusual talents have an opportunity of developing them, and of devoting themselves, by becoming apprentices, to the instruction of youth. In consequence of this, a great number of those necessitous children have been able to extricate themselves from a state of poverty, and to rise to the condition of reputable citizens."

The opinions and principles here expressed are not peculiar to the directors of the schools for the poor in Amsterdam, nor to Mr. L'Ange; they are held by all the inspectors, and by all men in Holland who take an interest in primary schools. The government found among certain persons in Belgium a prepossession in favor of the system of mutual instruction; this they did not directly oppose, which would only have made the prepossession stronger, but they took pains to enlighten public opinion on the subject, and, I am told, with success. I shall quote here the very words of the government, as contained in one of those reports (that of 1815) which must, by law, be presented annually to the States General.

"A school for the poor has recently been established at Antwerp, in which they intend to adopt the system of mutual instruction, which is so much acted upon and approved of in England and France, but which is viewed with a less ardent admiration in other countries, such as Switzerland, Germany, Scotland, and Holland, where elementary education has for a long period been an object of the attention of government. Does the method of Lancaster yield results as durable as they are rapid? If it be useful in imparting quickly some elementary notions and elementary branches of knowledge, is it equally serviceable in developing and giving exercise to the moral faculties? Is it true that it is specially adapted to schools for the poor, where moral training is of infinitely higher importance than education in the ordinary sense of the term? Are its defects in this respect sufficiently compensated by its greater economy, both as regards time and money? Before we come to a final decision on these questions, a practical trial ought to be made, to see the effects of this plan of mutual instruction as compared with those of the systems hitherto acted upon. We shall have Lancasterian schools established by the side of those excellent schools which our country has so long had reason to boast of; and perhaps, by borrowing from each other what is preferable in each, we shall see the distance which now separates the two systems gradually diminish. Such, at all events, must be the wishes and the hopes of the government, which professes, and will observe, entire impartiality between them; its only aim will be to render both subservient to the public weal; to direct them, in common, towards the one great object—the diffusion of virtue and intelligence. It will regulate and facilitate all possible means of carrying both into effect with most advantage; leaving their farther progress and improvement to the zeal of their several partisans, and to the test of experience, a monitor that never addresses himself in vain to a generous and reflecting people."

MUSIC IN SCHOOLS.

I cannot express how much I was touched by hearing in these little village schools, at the singing lesson, the same national air which I had heard sung in the schools at The Hague, and at Haarlem. I heard the same song everywhere else. It is a simple and noble composition, inspiring patriotism and loyalty, and bringing home to the heart many ennobling sentiments. Every great people ought to have a national anthem, to be sung every where, in the greatest theatres, and in the humblest schools, in cities and in villages. The English *God save the King* is a beautiful song of this description. In France we have some admirable songs to which our revolutions have given birth, but we have no national hymn. It would be a work worthy of a great master to compose a tune to words in a noble but unemphatic strain, which should be a source of moral inspirations, free from all those exaggerated and impassioned expressions which should never, under any pretext whatever, be heard within the walls of a school for children; and be so wholly free from party spirit, that it might be in harmony with all times and all opinions, and with the feelings of all classes of society. I attach so much importance to improving the mind by the aid of music, that, if I were a minister, I should not hesitate to propose a prize for the best national song, adapted to schools for the people.

A SCHOOL FOR THE POOR IN AMSTERDAM.

The school is divided into three classes: the first or lowest class is subdivided into three *forms*, the second into two *desks*; in the lowest class there are no desks, as they do not write. The following is a list of the things taught in the different classes and subdivisions.

FIRST CLASS.—1st *Form*, letters and spelling; 2d *Form*, spelling and separating words into syllables; 3d *Form*, spelling, reading and punctuation, numeration and the multiplication table.

SECOND CLASS.—1st *Desk*, reading, parts of speech, principles of

writing, formation of cyphers, the first elements of arithmetic, singing; at Desk, reading, writing, arithmetic, mental arithmetic, declensions and conjugations, history of the Netherlands, sacred history from the Bible, singing.

In the THIRD CLASS, reading of a more advanced description, writing, arithmetic in its applications by the rule of three and higher rules, the grammar and syntax of the Dutch language, the history of the Netherlands and of other countries, sacred history from the Bible, and singing.

Besides these several kinds of instruction, one hour a week is devoted to teaching the principles of religion. Upon each occasion, the pupils are questioned upon the subject of the lesson, in order that they may fully comprehend what they have read.

The pupils never leave their seats during the lessons; every thing is done by examples written with chalk upon the black boards on the walls, in writing, in the study of language, in arithmetic, in singing, &c., but they have also books for learning to spell and to read; they always write in copy-books, and never use slates except for arithmetic.

The letters of the alphabet are traced upon the board before the pupils, as well as diphthongs and triphthongs, which they are taught to pronounce in one syllable; and they are also taught to unite consonants and to pronounce them by one effort of the voice. The master of the beginners shows them, on the board, the simple letters, the double and compound consonants, and syllables of two and three vowels; and after they have learned to pronounce them, they are made to find them out in their book; and in this way they learn insensibly to spell, so that, in general, in a very short time, there are no longer any of those who are styled the first form of the first class.

In every school containing from 300 to 400 children, the instruction is confided to a head master, who has under him a first and a second usher, besides some apprenticed teachers, and some who are expecting to be apprenticed.

As it is a great object, in these schools, to lead the children on, rather by a sense of duty and a spirit of emulation than by a servile dread of punishments, on choosing a master, they require, as essential qualifications, not only that he be irreproachable in morals and in piety, but that he be of great calmness and sobriety of character. He must have a thorough knowledge of the rules of his native tongue; and be well versed in writing, arithmetic, history, and geography; be able to instruct in singing, and be competent to teach the principles of religion; above all, he is required to possess the talent of communicating what he knows with readiness to his pupils: thus, not only the head master, but also the under masters have to undergo a very severe examination, both upon the theory and the practice of the art of teaching, before they are admissible to any charge.

To the head master belongs the general direction of the school; he must maintain good order, and see that the ushers and the apprenticed teachers, as well as the pupils, rigidly perform their several duties. He also takes a part in the teaching of the upper class, and occasionally in that of the other classes.

The ushers teach, under the immediate superintendence of the head master, either through the medium of the black boards, or by hearing the children read from their elementary books; but always in their places.

The apprenticed teachers are youths selected from among the best scholars in the upper class, and those only are apprenticed who have distinguished themselves by assiduity and good conduct, and who have manifested a desire, approved of by their parents, to devote themselves to the instruction of youth. They are at first received as candidates, and they are made to assist in the school, particularly in teaching the first or lowest class, and those who belong to the first desk in the second class. After having been for some time exercised in this way, they undergo an examination, and are placed among the apprenticed teachers, according to their capacities.

This institution thus becomes a nursery for schoolmasters, and the more so in consequence of an arrangement by which these youths, whether they be candidates or apprenticed teachers, are instructed during the intervals of the ordinary school hours, by three masters, in writing, correct reading, the more difficult parts of the structure of their own language, history, geography, arithmetic, algebra, and geometry. Another advantage is, and in this respect it differs from any other institution of the kind, that none are admitted as candidates but those who have been found by actual trial to possess a natural talent, together with the preliminary qualifications, for the vocation of a teacher; and the consequence of this has been, that it has sent out a great many masters equally distinguished by talent and personal character. As soon as the candidates are admitted into the rank of apprenticed teachers, they receive, like the masters and ushers, an annual salary.

In every school an exact account is kept of the absences of the scholars, and there are marks for good conduct and for proficiency in reading, writing, ciphering, language, &c. At the end of every week these marks are reckoned up, and the names of the two girls and the two boys in each class who have the greatest number, are proclaimed, and their names are inscribed on a tablet kept for the purpose, where they remain during the whole of the ensuing week. At the end of six months, an account is taken of all these marks, and the four pupils, in each subdivision of the several classes, who have obtained the most,

and consequently have had their names most frequently inscribed weekly on the tablet, receive prizes of useful books neatly bound. Prints and small picture books are given to those of the younger children who have been most steady in their attendance, and, to the elder ones, presents of body-linen and of stockings, as an encouragement to good conduct. The prizes are always delivered by members of the College of Curators, at the conclusion of an examination, which takes place every six months. They are severally required to pay a monthly visit to each of the schools under their special charge, and to give in a report of those visits at the monthly meeting of the general board.

The scholars who leave the school are distinguished into three classes; the first consists of those who, from having been frequently absent, or from having been found incorrigibly bad, are dismissed, or have their names erased from the school list; the second comprehends those who have left the school in the regular course, that is, at the determinate age, and with the consent of the school authorities; and all are enrolled in the third class who have successfully gone through the whole course of study. These last, on leaving school, are presented with a certificate of honor, at the annual public meeting held for the purpose of receiving the report of the College of Curators, and they receive at the same time a present of linen and stockings. At the same meeting, which is usually held in one of the churches of the city, the assembled pupils go through some exercises, in presence of the public, to show the progress they have made; and the apprenticed teachers exhibit proofs of their acquirements, and of their skill in the art of teaching.

The punishments consist either in a task to be learned after school hours, in making the culprit stand up for some time in the presence of his companions, and in marks of bad conduct, which are deducted from the marks that are given for diligence and good conduct. Corporal punishments are rarely resorted to, and when they are deemed necessary, the master only inflicts them, and always without betraying any signs of passion.

If there be not sufficient space for a separation of the sexes, the boys and girls are taught in one room, but at separate desks, and on separate forms, so that no irregularity can take place.

Besides the branches of instruction taught in common to the children of both sexes, the girls are regularly taught to knit, usually by the wives of the masters. Such of the girls as, on leaving this school, receive certificates of good conduct, are received afterwards into other schools, instituted solely for the children of the indigent classes, which are under the management of ladies, who are called Directresses, and these girls are instructed in all branches of needle-work.

Finally, during the winter months, there is an evening school for those youths who have left the day school, and are working as apprentices in different trades, but are still desirous of keeping up the knowledge they had acquired.

In order to judge for myself of the correctness of this description, I requested Mr. L'Ange to shew me the principal school for the poor in Amsterdam; one that would give me the most exact and complete idea of the rest. We went together, and, on entering the school, I at once recognized the original of that picture which I have just drawn: a large airy room; boards upon the walls; children of both sexes, badly enough clothed, but washed and clean after their fashion; in three divisions, each under the management of an assistant master. These assistants are subordinate to under masters, who are in their turn subordinate to the head master or director. There were about six hundred children, and the room might, and was intended to, contain a thousand, as soon as some repairs were completed.

I said to Mr. L'Ange that I heartily wished that these repairs might never be completed; as six hundred children were quite enough for one school, even for a school for the poor. When so many children are employed in different occupations, there must necessarily be a noise; this may be no inconvenience to the younger ones, who are engaged in things almost wholly mechanical; but it must be an annoying disturbance to the more advanced pupils. Instead of one vast room, it would be much better to have two or three smaller ones, adjoining each other, where the different divisions might be taught. I repeat, that the object is not to make a gratifying display of a large assemblage of children under the tuition of a single master, but how to obtain the best education for every individual child; and to do this, there must not only be different classes in the school, but there must be a separate room for each class. In my opinion, a hundred children are quite enough for one room, and three or four rooms for one school. There ought to be more schools, and the existing ones ought to be less numerous; in every school there ought to be more rooms, and in every one of these rooms there ought to be a smaller number of children. It is more easy and less expensive to purchase several small houses and adapt them to the purpose, than to build one large school room; especially in such places as Amsterdam and Paris; and I quoted to the worthy inspector the example of Berlin, where none of the parochial schools for the poor contain more than three hundred children. As a question of health it is very important: I remarked that the heat was very great in that large room, notwithstanding the season of the year; and the heat was not of a very healthy description, in spite of the windows and all the other precautions for ventilation.

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL IN LEYDEN.

The intermediate school is so called, because it is a sort of middle

school between the French schools and the schools for the poor. But that term has reference to the finances rather than to the subjects taught; for it is an elementary school, like the latter. It is intermediate in this sense, that the education is not gratuitous, as it is in general in the schools for the poor, but it is far from being so expensive as the French school. The payment is small, but still something is paid; the consequence of which is, that the children who attend the intermediate schools are of a better description than those belonging to the wholly indigent classes, but still are not those of the reputable tradespeople. The subjects taught are the same as in the schools for the poor, but they take more pains in teaching, and in general each division of the school has a separate room, which is very much in favor of good teaching. I found in the intermediate school of Leyden, a custom in the collection of the school fee, which is very peculiar, but I was told that it answers well: the payments are not made either monthly or weekly, or even daily, but each school-time. Thus, from nine in the morning till twelve, is the first school-time, and from two to five is the second; and the payment for each time is a cent and a half of Holland, which is equal to three French centimes, or about five sixteenths of a penny English. Paying this small fee every half day, seems less heavy than giving a larger sum all at once every week or every month. The children who attend this school therefore pay about fifteen pence per month.

To this intermediate school an evening school is attached, for the older children, who have been educated at the school, but who have been apprenticed out, and who, being occupied during the day, may come in the evening to keep up or carry on their education. The following detailed account of the present organization of this school, was drawn up after I had personally inspected it in company with Mr. Blussé, the school inspector of the Leyden district, a very active old man, who for a long time has been at the head of the popular education in this place, and has been himself the author of all the prosperity he now enjoys, with so much and such well merited satisfaction.

The school was established in 1825. There are, at present, 480 scholars at the day school, and 130 at the evening school. They admit boys and girls of all religious denominations, even the Jews. It is under the control of the school committee of the town, and is managed by a head master, with ushers under him, and assistant teachers, together with the some of the former pupils, who, having completed their studies are candidates for the situations of assistant teachers, having chosen the profession of a schoolmaster. A special master is appointed to each division of the school.

No pupil can be admitted into this or any other school in the kingdom, without first producing a certificate of having been vaccinated. None are received under six years of age in the day school, or under ten in the evening school. Those who absent themselves more than six times in the day school, and more than four times in the evening school without an excuse allowed by the head master, are sent away; in the first instance by the head master, and afterwards and finally, by the school committee, which meets once a month, to take cognizance of all matters appertaining to the school.

The school is open half an hour before the teaching commences. Lessons begin in the morning at a quarter past nine, and continue till twelve; in the afternoon at a quarter past two, and continue till half past four; in the evening at five minutes past seven, and continue till nine; and so soon as the lessons have begun, the door is closed, and no one is afterwards allowed to enter. The door being shut, the school fee is collected; and those who have forgotten to bring it, are sent out to fetch it: the money is put into a locked box, which is sent at the end of the week to the school committee.

The whole expenses of the school are defrayed by the school committee, out of the fees paid by the pupils, with the exception of the building, which is maintained at the expense of the town council. It will thus be seen, that this school, which does so much credit to the town, is a very light burden upon its finances.

At the monthly meeting of the school committee, the head master makes a report, on the wants of the school during the ensuing month; on the children who have been too frequently absent, and on those who have misconducted themselves, and have proved incorrigible by the only species of punishment allowed, which consists in removals from the usual place of the pupil in the school, and his banishment to a particular seat, where he must remain idle.

The greatest strictness is observed in regard to cleanliness; those children who come dirty are immediately sent back with a note of admonition to their parents; and if they continue to offend in this respect, they are reported to the school committee.

The school opens each time with a prayer or a psalm, or with both. At the end of the year, a formal examination takes place, which concludes with a distribution of little books and children's prints among those who have distinguished themselves, either by the progress they have made, or by general good conduct; and as many members of the town council as can attend are present on the occasion. There are five weeks of vacation in the course of the year, which are given at such times as the school committee think best.

In the day school there are six classes, and the following is the regular course of tuition:

1st Class—Reading, spelling, and writing on slates; numeration; bible history; mental exercises upon the plan of Lohr, and exercises for the memory by means of verses learnt by heart.

2d Class—The same subjects, with the addition of beginning to write on paper.

3d Class—The same subjects, with the addition of mental arithmetic.

4th Class—The same subjects, together with theoretical and practical arithmetic, and singing.

5th Class—The same subjects, together with grammar, geography, and the history of their own country.

6th and highest Class—All the subjects taught in the other classes carried out more fully.

In the evening school there are four classes:

1st Class—Reading, writing, and bible history.

2d Class—Reading, writing, bible history, and arithmetic.

3d Class—Reading, writing on paper, theoretical and practical arithmetic, grammar, the national history, bible history, geography, singing.

4th Class—The same subjects, with some instruction in mechanical philosophy, and general history.

INFANT SCHOOL AT ROTTERDAM.

The first infant school in Holland was established at Zwolle in 1828. It is wholly gratuitous, and judging from the reports before me, it seems to have had surprising success: this is at least certain, that it is considered in Holland to be quite a *normal* school of this description. The infant school which was established afterwards at Deventer, was formed upon the model of that at Zwolle; and when the school committee of Rotterdam had determined upon establishing one in that town, they sent the person who was to be placed at the head of it, along with two assistants they proposed to give him, to learn the method and to acquire some experience in teaching in the school at Zwolle. There is no other infant school in Holland except these three, which is a great mistake, and is attended with very evil consequences. If gratuitous schools for the children of the poor, from five or six years of age to twelve, have been established, why not have schools for the same children from the age of two until they are old enough to go to the more advanced schools? Every primary school for the poor ought to have a gratis infant school attached to it. In this way the one is a nursery to the other; the one paves the way for the other, and both together constitute one and the same establishment. Not having been either at Zwolle or at Deventer, I did not see a gratis infant school, for at Rotterdam the children pay. I examined it with the greatest attention in all its arrangements.

There is an entrance hall, on the left of which is a small room, where the children are washed, and every thing else is attended to which cleanliness requires, and, on the right, another room which is properly the school; it is large and well ventilated, but its neatness approaches a little too much towards elegance. There were about a hundred children in three divisions, the one consisting of those about two years of age, another of those who were somewhat older; and the third of such as were from five to six years old. Each of these divisions is under the management of an under mistress; and over these three persons there is a directress or head-mistress, who is always present, and has the general care of the school. They teach the children to read, and a little arithmetic; and their intelligence is exercised by seeing a great number and variety of natural objects, or tolerably correct representations of them. They do not write on paper, but they trace letters upon slates. At one end of this school-room there is another room, where the children play in winter and in bad weather, and outside, there is a pretty large gravelled court for them in fine weather. It is a large number of teachers for so small a number of children, but the room is capable of containing many more than a hundred. Each child pays twopence a week.

The infant school occupies the whole of the ground floor of the house. They intend to have on the first floor a paying elementary school, for the same class of children as those who come to the infant school. The vicinity of the two is very suitable, and it would be a great advantage if they were likewise to have on the premises a French school, where the fees should be somewhat high, and which should be in all respects in high order. Were that done, there would be in Rotterdam a true model of a complete establishment of primary instruction for the middle ranks.

SCHOOL FOR JUVENILE OFFENDERS AT ROTTERDAM.

I saw a charitable institution at Rotterdam, so singular in its nature, and where primary instruction forms so important a part, that I must say a few words respecting it; I mean the penitentiary for young boys. I shall give a sufficiently correct notion of the excellent system upon which the prisons in Holland are managed, by saying, that the central prisons are divided into two classes, the one for young people below eighteen or twenty years of age, the other for older persons. The central penitentiary for young persons, established at Rotterdam, used to receive young prisoners of both sexes; they were rigidly separated from each other in the court yards, and in the rooms where they got their meals, and there were distinct schools for each sex. In spite of all these precautions, however, experience demonstrated the necessity of separating them entirely, and of having one penitentiary for boys and another for girls. The girls are at Amsterdam; the boys at Rotterdam. I examined the last with the most minute attention.

The object which they have in view in those places, is not only to make the young people submissive and correct in their conduct during the time of their imprisonment, but to improve them. The imprison-

ment itself, and the severity of the discipline, constitute the just punishment for the offence; for it is indispensable that there should be punishment. But the chastisement would not be adapted to its proper end, if it did not tend to improve the criminal, and every possible care is taken that the prison should deserve the title of a penitentiary. They work upon the young offenders by the combined effects of the prison discipline; 1st, by the discipline to which they are subjected, in order to give them notions of order and of submission to authority; and 2dly, by the labor they have to go through, for which purpose there are workshops of different kinds. The system of the house is military; all the officers are dressed in uniform, and preserve a grave and decent deportment, which of itself is an excellent lesson. The diet is wholesome, but very coarse; and so it ought to be. There is not a separate cell for each prisoner, but the dormitories have only a small number of beds, which are all hammocks, and every thing was clean and conveniently arranged.

The school consists of about sixty young prisoners, all dressed alike in coarse but clean linen jackets and trousers. I was very much struck with the progress which their copy books shewed they had made, and frequently in a very short time; and I was particularly pleased with their singing. We must, however, recollect that it was not in intelligence these youths were wanting. The master is a young man, with grave and mild manner, who seems like the father of his pupils. It had been proposed to give him one of the gaolers as an assistant to keep order; this he declined, assigning as a reason, that it would look as if he was afraid; and so he manages the whole school himself. He devotes his whole life to this sacred duty: he knows every one of his pupils individually, and endeavours to gain their confidence. He does not lose sight of them even after they have left the house, but continues to look after them; they get situations upon his recommendation, and he keeps up a regular correspondence with every one of them. But such a system would be impossible, if the pupils were not limited to a small number; were not this the case, all that one man could do would be to instruct them as well as he could, so long as they remained under his immediate care; and it would be impossible for him to look after them in their future career. If, in such an establishment, the number of prisoners be considerable, they ought to be carefully separated, and committed, in divisions of fifty or sixty at most, to the care of one master, who should be specially charged, not only with the duty of instructing them, but with their education, and who should be not only responsible for them at the time, but should continue to watch over them afterwards.

I was surprised to learn, that this central prison for boys, the only one in all Holland, did not then contain more than from sixty to eighty prisoners; so that, adding seventy, who were expected from a depot at Leyden, there were, at most, only 150*, out of a population of 2,500,000! To find a solution of this phenomenon, I had only to reflect upon the excellent schools I had every where met with. The charges upon the towns for the support of the schools produce then this result, that there are fewer offences and fewer crimes; and consequently less to pay for police, and for the prevention and punishment of crime. In Rotterdam, a commercial town, of nearly 100,000 inhabitants, filled with merchandize, and where the number of canals and bridges afford great facilities to depredators, robberies are rare, and burglaries, accompanied by acts of violence, so much so, that the gentlemen who accompanied us, assured me, that it would be very difficult for them to mention any. It is with grief that I contemplate the mistaken zeal, the illogical reasoning of certain philanthropists, and even of certain governments, who bestow so much pains upon prisons, and neglect schools: they allow crime to spring up and vicious habits to take root, by the utter neglect of all moral training and of all education in children; and when crime is grown and is strong, and full of life, they attempt to cope with it; they try to subdue it with the terror of punishment, or to mitigate it, in some degree, by gentleness and kindness. After having exhausted all their resources, both of thought and of money, they are astonished to find that their efforts are vain; and why, because all they do is in direct opposition to common sense. To correct is very important, but to prevent is far more so. The seeds of morality and of piety must be early sown in the heart of the child, in order that they may be found again and be made to shoot forth in the breast of the man, whom adverse circumstances may have brought under the avenging hand of the law. To educate the people is the necessary foundation of all good prison discipline. It is not the purpose of a penitentiary to change monsters into men; but to revive in the breasts of those who have gone astray, the principles which were taught and inculcated to them in their youth, and which they acknowledged and carried into practice in former days, in the schools of their infancy, before passion and wretchedness, and bad example, and the evil chances of life had hurried them away from the paths of rectitude. To correct, we must excite remorse, and awaken the voice of conscience; but how can we recall a sound that had never been heard? how are we to revive a language that had never been taught? If to demonstrate presupposes principles already agreed upon, if we are to correct, we must also presuppose an admitted rule; some feeling of

* Many of these juvenile offenders were mere vagabonds, whom the tribunals do not hesitate to commit to prison, because they know the pains that will be bestowed on their moral education in the penitentiary.

obligation and of duty; a knowledge of good and evil; which, though forgotten, has not been rooted out; some pre-existent virtuous habits, which are to be brought back by judicious treatment, and be made to triumph over those more recently acquired, which had shut out the earlier and better feelings. I approve of, nay, I bless with my whole heart, every kind of penitentiary; but I consider that they must ever remain almost fruitless, unless their power to reclaim is made to rest upon the effect of schools for the people universally established, attendance upon which is obligatory, and where instruction is considered as only one of the means of education.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE SCHOOL LAW OF HOLLAND.

I know of no law relating to primary instruction so short or more effective. It provides nothing more than the governing powers for the primary schools; every thing else is left to the general rules for their administration.

The illustrious oriental scholar, Mr. Van der Palm, who was appointed Commissioner of Public Instruction for the Batavian Republic, drew up the first law, which was passed on the 15th of June, 1801, and laid the foundation of all the laws subsequently adopted. At a later period, Mr. Van der Palm, while a member of the council for the Home Department, and as such, having charge of the public instruction, brought forward, and carried through, on the 19th of July, 1803, a second law, to alter that of 1801; in conformity with the spirit of those changes which had occurred in the interval. In 1805, another change placed Mr. Schimmelpenninck at the head of the Batavian Republic, with the title of Grand Pensionary, abolished the council for the Home Department, and interrupted the political career of Mr. Van der Palm, who withdrew entirely from public affairs. The Grand Pensionary appointed a Secretary of State for the Home Department, and assigned to him the duties that had belonged to the Commissioner of public instruction, attaching to his office a Chief Commissioner for the primary schools. Mr. Van den Ende received this appointment of Commissioner. He had been constantly engaged in almost the same duties from the year 1800, under the Commissioner of Public Instruction, and under the Minister of the Interior. From that period to 1833, Mr. Van den Ende continued at the head of the primary instruction in Holland; he finished the work which Mr. Van der Palm had begun; modifying it, and rendering it more perfect. This is the origin of the law presented by the Grand Pensionary to the chamber of representatives of the Batavian Republic on the 19th November, 1805, which was adopted by them on the 25th of February, 1806, and on the 3d April of the same year was promulgated by the Grand Pensionary as a law of the state, together with the general regulations which the law authorized the government to frame, and which are consequently incorporated in the law itself.

This code of primary instruction was founded on principles so wise, had so much unity in all its parts, was so conformable to the spirit of the people, and adapted itself so easily, by the generality of its principles, to the customs and habits of the different provinces, how dissimilar soever they might be, that it has continued to the present time without any important alteration, and has survived three great revolutions: first, that which converted the Batavian Republic into a kingdom, at first independent, but afterwards incorporated with the French empire; next, that which dethroned Louis, restored the house of Orange, and united Holland and Belgium in one monarchy; and lastly, the revolution which again separated the two countries, and restricted the kingdom of the Netherlands to its former limits. During these thirty years, the law of 1806 was never interfered with; it could only be altered by another law, and when the government in 1829, in order to please the Belgian liberal party, brought forward a new general law, which made some very objectionable changes in that of 1806, the chambers resisted, and the government were obliged to withdraw the bill.

The code of primary instruction of 1806 has thus remained undisturbed; it has undergone no modification, has received no addition, nor has any new interpretation been put upon it; it has governed, and continues to govern the whole of the primary schools in Holland; all the provincial regulations are framed upon it, and those of each individual school are founded upon the law itself, and the provincial regulations. The law and its own general regulations, the provincial regulations, and the regulations of the individual schools, have been so little altered, that I found them in 1836, very nearly what Cuvier had found them in 1811; with this difference only, that the whole system has acquired a development and a firmness of structure which time only can give to such institutions. All the good that has been accomplished, is to be ascribed to the efficacy of the law of 1806, and the general regulations annexed to it.

The Dutch legislators made no attempt at a masterpiece of codification, in which the whole subject of primary instruction was to be divided and classed according to the rules of philosophical analysis: they went straight to their point, by the shortest and the safest road; and as inspection must be the fundamental basis of primary schools, it was inspection which they established by law.

Each district has its inspector; each province has its own board of education, made up of the inspectors of each district; and under the minister of the interior, there is the Inspector General of Primary Instruction, who has power to summon a general meeting of the provincial boards at the Hague, which may be called the assembly of the states general of primary instruction.

EXTRACTS

FROM THE LAW AND GENERAL REGULATIONS OF THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC, ADOPTED IN 1806.

ART. 1. The special inspection of primary instruction shall be confided, throughout the whole extent of the Batavian Republic, to functionaries who shall be called school inspectors.

ART. 2. The provincial authorities shall take care that, throughout the whole extent of their province, young persons shall have every means of receiving a suitable education.

ART. 3. They, as well as the parochial authorities, shall endeavor to ameliorate, and give security to, the condition of the teachers; according to such means as are at their disposal, or according to such as shall be supplied by the government, in case of need. They shall further take pains to encourage the adoption of the best system of education in the primary schools, to establish schools of industry in connection with the public schools, and maintain such as are already in existence in workhouses.

ART. 4. The school inspectors living in the same province, shall constitute the Board of Primary Instruction for that province.

ART. 5. Besides the power vested in the provincial authorities to appoint out of their own body a committee to watch over the primary schools, they may appoint from among themselves a member, who shall have particular powers to that effect, who shall stand in a neutral capacity between the committee of education and the school inspector, and to whom the latter must in the first instance apply in all matters relating to the school.

ART. 13. No one shall be allowed to teach in a primary school in the Batavian Republic, without complying with the four following conditions:—

First. He must produce one or more satisfactory certificates of good character, both as to his morals and his conduct as a citizen.

Secondly. He must have a certificate of general admission to exercise the calling of a teacher.

Thirdly. Besides such certificate of general admission, he must produce a *call, nomination, or special appointment*, to some particular school, legally obtained.

Fourthly. After having obtained such call, nomination or special appointment, he must appear, with such proofs as may be desired, (either individual witnesses or written testimony,) before the school inspector of his district, and before the local school board.

REGULATION A. *Concerning primary instruction and the establishments connected with it.*

ART. 5. Every school inspector shall have his own particular district, the inspection whereof shall be confided to him individually, and in which he must, if possible, reside.

ART. 6. The boards of education shall be provided by the provincial authorities, with every thing necessary for holding their meetings, such as a suitable room, fire, light, paper, &c.

ART. 9. The school inspector of the district is authorized, in concert with the local authorities, to entrust one or more known and respectable persons with a local inspection, subordinate to his own, over the school or schools, and also over all the teachers of both sexes in the place, whether village, hamlet, or otherwise, and for each separately.

ART. 10. In all the more considerable towns and places, the parochial authorities, in concert with the school inspector of the district, shall establish a local superintendence of the primary schools, which shall consist of one or more persons, according to local circumstances, but so as each member shall have a particular division, and all the schools in that division shall be confided to him individually. These persons shall collectively constitute, with the school inspector of the district, the local school board.

ART. 17. No one shall be allowed to become a candidate for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

ART. 22. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

ART. 23. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of the religious community to which they belong; but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

ART. 30. The provincial and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps:

1st. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.

2d. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year.

REGULATION B. *Concerning the examinations to be undergone by those who desire to become teachers of the primary schools.*

ART. 1. The teachers shall be divided into four classes or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

ART. 7. In these examinations, the object shall be, to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

ART. 8. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavor to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinion on morals and religion, the sphere of his attainments, both with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

ART. 24. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published through the medium of the periodical work, intitled "*Bydragen tot den Staat*," &c.*

REGULATION C. INSTRUCTION FOR THE SCHOOL INSPECTORS, AND FOR THE BOARDS OF EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT PROVINCES.

2. Each inspector shall make himself acquainted with the number and situations of the primary schools, and also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. It shall be his duty to see that, besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall be a sufficient number of schools for children of tender age, organized in the best possible manner, and also schools of industry. Finally, he shall take care, that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different parishes.

3. He shall make it his business to become personally acquainted with the different masters in his district, and with the extent of their fitness, and shall keep a note thereof.

4. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose, he shall at fixed periods require a certain number of them to meet him, either at his own house or in other parts of his district, and as frequently as possible.†

5. The inspector shall be bound to visit twice a year all the schools in his district, which are directly subject to his supervision. He is hereby exhorted to repeat those visits at different times, either when a particular case calls for it, or for the general good.

6. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed: and, according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen and heard. Every school inspector shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

9. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year.

18. The ordinary meetings of the boards shall be held in the towns where the provincial authorities reside, at least three times a year; the one during Easter week, the other two in the second week of July and October.

24. At each ordinary meeting, each member shall give in a written report:—

1. Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, stating the time of his visit, and the observations he then made regarding the state of the schools, in all the different particulars.

2. Of the meetings he has held of the schoolmasters for the purpose of communicating with them respecting their duties.

3. Of the examinations which have taken place before him of masters of the lowest class, and of the higher classes.

* This useful compilation continues to the present day.

† In compliance with the spirit of this article, societies of schoolmasters have been formed, under the auspices of the inspectors, at different times, in the districts of each province, which keeps up a rivalry of improvement. They meet at stated times, generally every month.

4. Of the changes and other events which shall have taken place in his district, relative to any school or schoolmaster, since the last meeting, and especially all vacancies of masterships, the delivery of deeds of call, nomination, or special appointment of every degree and of every class, setting forth the most important circumstances connected with them: the appointment of local inspectors in places of minor extent; the changes that may have occurred in the local school boards; the inspection of a new primary school or school of industry; the admission of any teacher of languages; the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of schools; the introduction of school books, other than those contained in the general list of books, in the private schools of both classes; the measures that have been taken to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; the measures that have been taken to secure the schools being uninterruptedly kept open and attended; any difficulties they may have encountered; the encouragement or otherwise which the masters may have met with; and the examinations of pupils in the schools. The inspector shall further point out the particular parts which he wishes to have inserted in the above mentioned monthly publication (*By-dragen*).

25. From these written documents and other private information, as well as from the written reports of the local school boards, (as mentioned in the following article,) every school inspector shall draw up annually, previous to the meeting held in Easter week, a general report on the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. He shall state therein the reasons why he has not visited, or has not visited more than once, any particular school in the course of the preceding year. He shall state such proposals as appear to him deserving of attention, and which may tend to the improvement of primary instruction.

26. In order that the school inspectors may not omit to mention, in their annual report, any of the particulars stated in the preceding article, the local school boards or their individual members, in so far as concerns the schools placed under their individual inspection, shall draw up a report in writing, similar to that required from the school inspectors, before the end of February at latest.

29. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting held in Easter week, each board shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within the space of four weeks, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, besides the documents mentioned in the preceding article,—

1. One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.
2. The originals of the general reports of the different members of the boards.
3. The originals of the annual written reports of the different local boards.
4. A detailed statement, taken from the report of each of the members, of the proposals which each board shall be desirous of bringing under the consideration of the next annual general meeting, or which it has been resolved to lay before the provincial authorities.

PROGRAMME OF THE EXAMINATION FOR A GENERAL ADMISSION, AS REGARDS EACH RANK IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF TEACHERS.

FOURTH CLASS.—Age 16.

Qualifications required. Reading, writing, elements of arithmetic, and aptitude for teaching.

First Examination. To write some lines in large text, half text, and small hand. Questions on the principles of arithmetic, application of the four rules to four problems. The candidates must mend pens which they have made.

Second Examination. Observations on the specimens of writing.—Reading different passages, printed, and written.—Questions on the manner of teaching the letters, the first elements of reading.—Numeration and arithmetic.

THIRD CLASS.—Age 18.

Qualifications required. Correct knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic; readiness in the application of these for ordinary purposes; principles of orthography and grammar; practical acquaintance with a good method of teaching.

First Examination. Writing in large text, half text, and small hand.—Questions on the theory of arithmetic, including fractions and decimals; problems on the four fundamental rules, applied to whole numbers and to fractions, and to the new system of weights, measures and money.—Questions on grammar, dictations in orthography, grammatical analysis. The candidates must give in, along with their copies, pens made by themselves.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects in the previous examination.—Reading passages in different characters; questions on punctuation.—Explanation of the principles for holding the pen, and for the position of the body in writing.—Development of the practical system of teaching reading, grammar, and arithmetic.—Questions upon the internal order of the school-

room; upon the application of rewards and punishments, and on the means to be employed in the moral education of the children.

SECOND CLASS.—Age 22.

Qualifications required. Correct reading; a good hand writing.—An acquaintance with arithmetic in all its parts and applications.—Rules of syntax.—Knowledge of history and geography.—Theory and practice of good methods of teaching.

First Examination. Exercises in formal and running-hand, in large text, half text, and small hand.—Questions on the theory of fractions and proportion; application of all the rules of arithmetic; development of the new system of weights, measures, and money. Solution of difficulties in syntax; analytical grammar and logic.—Questions on history and geography. The candidates must mend pens which they have made.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects of the previous examination.—Systematic reading of various passages in prose and verse; questions on punctuation; principles of the different kinds of writing.—Explanation of the right method of teaching reading, grammar, arithmetic, history, and geography, and of the means which contribute most to the development of the understanding.—Theory of rewards and punishments; questions on the discipline of schools, on the development of the moral qualities, on the repression of the vices most common in children, and on the duties which the office of master imposes. The candidate must give a narrative upon a particular subject, in which he shall introduce as many practical applications of principle as he is able, both in reference to morals and to the ordinary branches of knowledge.

FIRST CLASS.—Age 25.

Qualifications required. All the branches of primary instruction; the theory and practice of good methods of teaching; a well grounded knowledge of history and geography; some acquaintance with natural philosophy and mathematics; and generally, a cultivated mind, an easy delivery, and a ready and correct style.

First Examination. Exercises on different kinds of writing.—Questions upon the greater difficulties in language; on physical, political, and astronomical geography; on general history and on the history of Holland.—Problems in algebra and geometry; on natural philosophy and natural history.—Composition on a given subject.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects of the previous examination. Reading passages of different kinds; principles of elocution; thorough investigation of the theory of the system of teaching.—Questions on the objects and effects of education, and on the means of accomplishing these.

SCHOOLMISTRESSES.—all included in one class.

Qualifications required. Reading, writing, arithmetic, and an aptitude for teaching.

First Examination. Writing large text, half text, and small hand; questions on the theory of arithmetic, and problems on the four fundamental rules.—The persons admitted for examination to mend the pens which they may have used, and which they have themselves made.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects of the previous examination.—Reading of different passages.—Questions on the manner of teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic.—Questions on the internal order and discipline of schools for girls.

Observation. Schoolmistresses who wish to carry their teaching farther, may require to be examined on grammar, geography, history, and generally upon all the branches which they propose to teach, in order that their certificate of competency may make mention of, and authorize the teaching of the same.

TEACHERS OF LANGUAGES.—all included in one class.

Qualifications required. A perfect knowledge of the language which the candidates propose to teach; systematic explanation of the principles of both languages.

First Examination. Questions on the particular rules of each language.—Dictations for orthography.—Translation of some passages.—Composition on a given subject.

Second Examination. Observations on the written subjects of the previous examination.—Reading aloud.—Questions on the method to be pursued in teaching each language.

Observations. Persons who, without professing to teach publicly, are desirous of obtaining a certificate of competency as private tutors, shall be examined in all the branches they propose to teach, and which must be specifically mentioned as such in their certificate. The same rule shall apply to those masters who, although belonging to the lower classes of teachers, are desirous of instructing their pupils in geography, linear drawing, &c. The certificate, in every case, must state the different branches of instruction which the person in whose favor it is granted is authorized to teach.

REGULATION RESPECTING THE GENERAL ORDER TO BE OBSERVED IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

ART. 1. The primary schools shall be open without intermission

the whole year, except during the times fixed for the holidays.

ART. 2. During the whole time devoted to the lessons, the master shall be present from the beginning to the end; he shall not be engaged in any thing which is unconnected with the teaching, nor absent himself from school, except for reasons of absolute necessity.

ART. 3. The master shall take care that the pupils do not unnecessarily go out of school; and especially that they be quiet and attentive; and, when in the play ground, that they always conduct themselves in a peaceable, respectable, and modest manner.

ART. 4. When the number of pupils shall exceed seventy, measures shall be taken for providing a second master or an under master.

ART. 5. The pupils shall be entered, as much as possible, at fixed terms in the course of the year.

ART. 6. At the opening and at the breaking up of each class, a Christian prayer, solemn, short, and suitable to the occasion, shall be said daily or weekly. At the same time, a hymn, adapted to the circumstances, may be sung.

ART. 7. The pupils shall be divided into three classes, each of which shall have its distinct place; and, on every occasion when the school meets, each shall receive the instruction that belongs to it.

ART. 8. The instruction shall be communicated simultaneously to all the pupils in the same class: and the master shall take care that, during that time, the pupils in the two other classes are usefully employed.

ART. 9. The instruction in the different classes, and in the different branches taught, shall be as much as possible conveyed by the use of the black board.

ART. 10. When the master shall think it advisable, he shall reward the most advanced pupils by employing them to teach some parts of the lessons to the beginners.

ART. 11. The master shall take care that the pupils be at all times clean in their dress, well washed and combed, and he shall at the same time pay the strictest attention to every thing that may contribute to their health.

ART. 12. The school-rooms shall be at all times kept in proper order; for that purpose they shall be ventilated in the intervals of school hours, and cleaned out twice a week.

ART. 13. An examination of each school shall take place at least once a year. Upon that occasion the pupils of a lower class shall be passed to a higher; and as far as circumstances will allow, rewards shall be given to those who have distinguished themselves by their application and good conduct.

ART. 14. When a pupil at the end of the course of study shall leave the school, if he shall have distinguished himself by the progress he has made and by his good conduct, a certificate of honour shall be presented to him.

ART. 15. A code of regulations shall be drawn up for each particular school, and this, whether written or printed, shall be pasted on a board, hung up in the room, and from time to time read and explained by the master.

ART. 16. The said codes shall be issued by the authorities over each school; their object shall be, to regulate the hours of teaching and how these shall be divided among the three classes.

MEASURES ADOPTED TO SECURE INSTRUCTION, IN THE DOCTRINAL PARTS OF RELIGION, TO THE CHILDREN BELONGING TO EACH COMMUNION.

As the masters were prohibited from teaching any particular religious doctrine in the schools, the government, through the Secretary of State for the Home Department, addressed a circular letter to the different ecclesiastical bodies in the country, inviting them to take upon themselves, out of school hours, the whole religious instruction of the young, either by properly arranged lessons in the catechism, or by any other means. Answers were returned from the Synod of the Dutch Reformed church and other ecclesiastical bodies, assenting to the separation of doctrinal, from the other instruction of the schools, and pledging themselves to extend the former through their ministers of the different religious communions. On the reception of these answers, the government authorized the provincial boards of education:—

To exhort all schoolmasters to hand a complete list, every six months, of the names and residences of their pupils belonging to any religious communion to such as should apply for it; and to take care that their pupils attend to the religious instruction provided for them.

To invite the governors of orphan asylums and workhouses, and similar establishments, to second the measures which the authorities of the communion shall take in reference to religious instruction.

To exhort the school inspectors, and through them the

local school boards to co-operate, as far as possible, with the consistories and ministers in their efforts to give instruction in the doctrines of their religion, so long as they confine themselves to their special province, and do not interfere with the business of the schools or the authority of the persons intrusted with their management by the government.

Thus did the Batavian Republic provide that the children should be prepared for "*the exercise of all the social and christian virtues*;" well knowing, that if the schools did no more than impart a knowledge of the material world, there might be profound ignorance of the good and the beautiful, and of the true destiny of human nature.

COMPARISON OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF HOLLAND AND PRUSSIA.

I greatly prefer the Prussian law to that of Holland, for normal schools, and the higher class of primary schools. In Prussia, with a population of less than thirteen millions, there are more than thirty* normal schools, completely organized. In Holland, where the population amounts to two millions and a half, there ought, according to the same proportion to be five; there are but two.

The second point in which the Prussian system appears to me to be superior to the Dutch, is in the classification of the schools. The four distinct classes of which I have spoken are, in truth, no more than a kind of moral hierarchy among the teachers, and are not really four classes of schools; the law itself does not establish any distinct classification. The lower schools are the same as the elementary primary schools of Prussia; they are to be found both in the towns and in the villages, and there are both public and private schools of this description.

The law does not require the masters of the French, or higher primary schools to have a special certificate; nor does it say under what conditions it shall be obligatory to have them established in a town. The French law, imitating the German law in this respect, requires that each chief town in the department, and every other town containing more than 6000 souls shall have a higher primary school.—By the Prussian law, every town of fifteen hundred inhabitants must have such a school; and, in that country, the course of instruction in the higher primary schools is more extended than in the French schools of Holland; a special qualification is necessary for the masters of such schools, which are constituted into a particular class of public establishments for education, under the popular name of *burgher-schulen*, citizen schools, and sometimes the very expressive name of middle or intermediate schools. From the want of a legal foundation of a similar nature, the higher primary schools in Holland are almost everywhere private speculations, which are encouraged by the towns, but are not maintained by them. There is, consequently, a considerable part of the population, for whose education no legal provision is made.

But the provincial boards of primary instruction, with their great and various powers, constitute in my mind, the chief superiority of the Dutch over the Prussian law. They resemble the *Schul-collegium*, which forms a part of every provincial consistory in Prussia, but they are far better, for the *Schul-collegium* is not composed of inspectors. It sends out some of its members to inspect, as occasion requires, but inspection is not its function. It judges from written documents, and not from ocular proof, and is generally obliged to rely upon the sole testimony of the member sent to inspect; whereas in Holland, the board itself being both inspectors and judges of inspections, are on the one hand better judges, in consequence of the experience they have acquired in a constant routine of inspection; and, on the other hand, they are better inspectors, by what they learn at the board, when acting as judges and governors, a combination eminently practical, and uniting what is almost everywhere separated.

I have thus described the system of primary instruction in Holland; and I have done it at some length from the official documents, because the great results which it has produced have so much contributed to the high estimation in which Holland is held by the rest of Europe. I had still another motive. Primary instruction, with us, is yet in its infancy; and the growing system is capable of receiving many modifications, and of being greatly developed by legislative interference. Every one knows how much our law of 1833 is indebted to the example of Germany; and I thought that the experience of Holland would not be appealed to in vain, at a time when the education of the people is so much an object of attention to the government and to all enlightened men. These are not vain, theoretical speculations, but principles sanctioned by a brilliant success of thirty years; and on that ground also I felt that I owed it both to Holland and to France to give this detailed description of the Dutch systems of education.

* In 1835. In 1836, there were forty-three.